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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XXIX

April, 1955

Number 4

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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY is published by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on the first day of July, October, January, and April. It is the official organ of the Association, and contains the proceedings of the annual meeting of the Association, together with much additional material directly related to the work of the Association. The regular subscription price is \$4.00 a year. The July number is priced at \$1.75; the others, \$1.00 each. All members of the Association—institutional and individual—are entitled to receive the QUARTERLY as part of their annual fees. A special subscription price of \$3.00 per year is permitted to school libraries, college libraries, and public libraries and to individuals connected with North Central Association membership institutions.

Publication Office: The George Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin.

Executive and Editorial Office: 4019 University High School Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Entered as Second-Class matter at the Post Office at Menasha, Wisconsin, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized March 8, 1919.

PRINTED IN THE U.S.A.

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April
1955

THE
NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION
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Volume XXIX
Number 4

Association Notes and Editorial Comments

THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH

UNDER THIS HACKNEYED TITLE a rather romantic story can be told, a story that is indicated in the columns below. To this story there are two leads: the proposed amendments to the Constitution which, if adopted, will enable the Commission on Colleges and Universities to change its form and somewhat its functions of years' standing; and the completed report of the Committee on Athletics which has been long in the making and, if approved, will bring order into a disorderly situation.

This is not the place to explore the specific features of either of these proposals. Each speaks for itself. But, being end-products, in each instance the story that lies behind the story provides the romantic aspect. As the reader will see when he reads these proposals elsewhere in these pages, certain indications are given of the respective backgrounds from which each has sprung.

Some will probably say that these proposed actions are long overdue. From where they have stood, different persons and interests over the years have charged the North Central Association with various sins of commission and of omission. Thus to some, it has netted the little fish but let the big ones get away; to others, it has talked big but acted little when the going got rough; whereas to still others, it has

behaved like a self-perpetuating accrediting agency undeviatingly devoted to its inflexible rules, regulations, and criteria while exercising powers of life or death over those who are subject to it.

Well, in the midst of all this the Association has held to its main purpose: first to establish and then to fortify worthy educational gains and then move on to advanced positions. Since it is comprised of human beings, the Association is as fallible as any other body of men; but the worthiness of its purpose has set its course and it has carried no flag but its own: "isms"—right or left—have not deflected it.

If to some it has seemed to change so slowly, being indurate, as not to change at all, we would say that change is relative: a function of time, certainly, if not *time space*. Thus when one looks no farther back than a decade and then forward to two weeks from this writing when the proposals mentioned earlier will, in all probability, have been adopted, one will see that change as *progress*, a major movement forward in two very important areas, is evident—that the old order has changed most purposefully.

HARLAN C. KOCH

"WHAT'S IN A NAME?"

ON SECOND THOUGHT, the Committee on Public Relations has decided that

there are just too many "Letters." So to rescue the new venture in public relations (THE QUARTERLY for January, 1955, page 231) from anonymity, the Committee has changed *Your NCA Letter* to *NCA Today*. Being literalists, the members of the Committee believe that names are fingers that point despite the poet's allegation to the contrary; so watch for *Today*. It points to the run of newsworthy events which, their importance notwithstanding, would, by and large, not be brought to the attention of the members of the Association otherwise.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

AS THIS NUMBER OF THE QUARTERLY goes to press, the following proposed amendments have just reached the membership of the Association. They are being announced under Article IX of the Constitution which reads as follows:

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote of the voting members at any official meeting of the Association, providing that a printed notice of any proposed amendments has been sent to each individual who is a member of the Association and to each member university, college, and secondary school at least two weeks prior to the date of said meeting.

Since, if approved by the Commission on Colleges and Universities, these proposals will come before the Association for action on March 25, they are well within the time limit as the date opposite the signature of secretary Burns attests.

If favorable action be taken on the above date, the amendments will, as a matter of course, become part of the Constitution and will be so published in the July issue of THE QUARTERLY.

For background, the reader should turn again to "The New Role of the Commission on Colleges and Universi-

ties" by Secretary Burns, pages 161-66 of the October, 1954, issue of THE QUARTERLY.

Proposed Amendments to the Constitution

Presented by the Committee on Reorganization of the Commission on Colleges and Universities

The amendments to the Constitution of the Association proposed here affect the organization of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. They were formulated by the Commission's Committee on Reorganization after full discussion with representatives of the member colleges and universities at state and regional meetings this fall and winter, representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools, and officers of the Association.

Please study these proposals carefully since they are to be presented for action to the Commission and to the Association at the coming Annual Meeting to be held the week of March 21, 1955. They are designed to accomplish the following purposes:

1. The Commission on Colleges and Universities should be more broadly representative of the higher institutional membership of the Association than it is under present provisions.

2. Formal provision should be made within the framework of the general policies of the Commission for expression and consideration of the differences in the needs, interests, and concerns of higher institutions growing out of differences in institutional type and geographic area.

3. Decentralization is needed in order to maintain the intimate and informal contact with institutions without which the Commission cannot hope to be maximally effective in carrying on its program of improved service to its membership.

The Proposed Amendments Follow:

1. That paragraphs 1 and 2, Section 4, Article IV of the Constitution be replaced by the following two paragraphs:

The member colleges and universities of the Association shall be grouped according to geographic districts, the number and boundaries of the districts to be determined by the Commission. Also, the member colleges and universities shall be grouped by type of institution, the basis for the grouping to be determined by the Commission.

The Commission on Colleges and Universities shall consist of representatives of member colleges and universities elected by the Commission subject to the approval of the Association, and three representatives designated by the Commission on Secondary Schools from the membership of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Election of members of the Commission shall be in accordance with a formula adopted by the Commission which shall provide for representation by district and by type of institution. Election shall be for a period of four years, one-fourth of the members to be elected annually. Members shall not be eligible for reelection until one year has elapsed, except in the case of a member of the Board of Review who shall continue on the Commission as an added member until the expiration of his term on the Board.

2. That paragraph 4, Section 4, Article IV of the Constitution be replaced by the following paragraph:

There shall be a Board of Review whose membership shall consist of the chairman of the Commission, *ex officio* chairman of the Board of Review; vice-chairman of the Commission, *ex officio* vice-chairman; and seven members of the Commission to be elected by the Commission for overlapping terms of five years each. Upon the expiration of this term no member may succeed himself. If a person who is not a member of the Commission is elected to the Board of Review he shall automatically become a member of the Commission upon election to the Board.

3. That paragraph 5, Section 4, Article IV of the Constitution remain as it is at present except for the addition of the following phrase at the end of this paragraph:

and, most importantly, to assist colleges and universities in the territory served by the As-

sociation in their efforts to strengthen their programs.

NORMAN BURNS, *Secretary*
Commission on Colleges
and Universities

March 4, 1955

Note: The Constitution appears in the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, July, 1954, pp. 138-145.

A STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES ON
INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS¹

ENCLOSED with the foregoing proposed amendments to the Constitution forwarded by Secretary Burns was the following completed statement of principles on intercollegiate athletics. The editor ventures the assertion that nothing in the recent history of the Association has aroused more interest or been awaited more impatiently than the final report of the Committee on Athletics. From insemination to delivery, the period of gestation has been manifestly or latently turbulent. In the near future the history of the Association's concern over athletics for thirty years or more should be published. It would be an interesting story indeed.

If the reader wishes to orient himself somewhat in regard to the following material, he should scan "The Report of the Committee on Athletics" which

¹ Drafted by the Committee on Athletics: Professor Ralph W. Aigler, Law School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor (*Chairman*); President John T. Caldwell, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville; Mr. G. E. Gauthier, Director of Athletics, Ohio Wesleyan University, Lafayette, Ohio; President Frederick L. Hovde, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana; President William R. Ross, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley; President S. N. Stevens, Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa; President Irvin Steward, West Virginia University, Morgantown; President W. Fred Totten, Flint Junior College, Flint, Michigan; President Oliver S. Willham, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater; Mr. C. P. Woodruff, Principal, Senior High School, Elkhart, Indiana; Dr. Eugene Youngert, Superintendent, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois.

Chairman Aigler presented to the Commission on Colleges and Universities, March 23, 1954. It appears on pages 189-96 of *THE QUARTERLY* for October, 1954. Other issues, notably July, 1952 (former criteria, pp. 17-20) and October, 1953, carry important materials also.

The Committee recommends that the following criteria be substituted for the statement of criteria on athletics adopted in 1952 and published in *THE QUARTERLY* for July, 1952, pp. 17-20. The report will be presented to the Commission on Colleges and Universities at the open business meeting on March 23. It appears in two parts:

- I. Policies and Criteria for the Conduct of Intercollegiate Athletics
- II. A Standing Committee and Its Responsibilities. The recommendations of the Committee follow.

Part I

Policies and Criteria for the Conduct of Intercollegiate Athletics

The place of the intercollegiate athletic program within the structure of American higher education, its educational aspects, its administration, its financing, its role in connection with institutional morale, public relations and relationships with secondary schools, make it a proper concern of the North Central Association. The Association therefore, with the approval of its membership, has both the authority and the responsibility to establish criteria of athletic policy and administration on the basis of which members will be examined and judged. In order to attain such standards in the administration of intercollegiate athletics, the Association will (a) examine critically from time to time the regulations and practices of its member institutions and (b) take appropriate action affecting

those institutions which fail to satisfy, through institutional or athletic conference action, the principles and standards which the Association has established for the conduct of intercollegiate athletic programs. The concern of the Association is with an institution's total intercollegiate athletic program, not with the enforcement of specific regulations. The individual criteria presented in the following paragraphs are guides to be followed in determining whether or not an athletic program as a whole is satisfactory.

Basic Principles and Administrative Standards

A) *Administration*.—Acting under the delegation of authority from the governing board of the institution, the chief administrative officer should be responsible for the administration of athletics for the institution. In accordance with standard practice, his administrative powers may be assigned to other institutional officers specifically charged with the management of the athletic program. However, the chief executive officer's final responsibility cannot be so delegated.

Likewise, the faculty as an organized entity should actively exercise in the area of intercollegiate athletics responsibilities comparable to those assigned to it by the governing body in other areas of the institution's educational program.

To clarify and establish these responsibilities, each institution should define, approve, and record in writing the role and objectives of the intercollegiate athletic program of the institution and the institutional regulations and procedures by which such objectives are to be accomplished.

B) *Finances*.—The financial control of an institution's athletic program should be similar to the financial control of other activities of the institution.

In this connection the Association will examine, among other matters, (a) the location of authority for collection of revenues from athletic activities, (b) the procedure for purchasing athletic supplies, (c) the budgetary control of the athletic program, and (d) the employment of student labor in the institution. Particular attention will be given to deviations in the administration of athletics from the policy that governs other institutional activities.

All funds received and expended for the institution's athletic program should be accounted for by the regular business authorities of the institution and the accounts for athletics should be included in the regular annual audit.

Member institutions will be expected upon request to provide the Association with their complete financial statements and auditors' reports.

C) *Athletic Staff*.—The members of athletic departments should be considered regular members of the staff and/or faculty with comparable arrangements for appointment and salary, and should be accorded the opportunity to earn tenure as other staff and/or faculty members do. As in the case of other institutional employees, the personnel of the athletic department should possess suitable qualifications in both preparation and experience to discharge their duties. Members of the athletic staff should be eligible to serve as members of appropriate university or college committees, and should demonstrate in their work a real concern for the total educational welfare and development not only of the institution they serve, but also of the individual students coming under their instruction.

D) *Admission of Students*.—Institutional admission standards and procedures, as announced in official publications, should apply alike to athletes and non-athletes, and be administered

by the regular admissions officers and committees of the institution.

E) *Student Eligibility for Athletic Participation*.—The athletic teams of an institution must be composed of full-time *bona fide* students in good standing. In order to be eligible for intercollegiate competition, a student must be enrolled in a program of study leading to a recognized degree, and must be making normal progress toward that degree both quantitatively and qualitatively, as defined by the institution.

F) *Scholarships and Grants-in-Aid*.—All financial aid to any athlete, in money or in kind, except that which comes from those on whom he is legally or naturally dependent, must be administered by the institution under regulations and procedures established for administering scholarships and grants-in-aid as for other students. Each institution should establish procedures to insure compliance with this provision. However, a student may receive any type of unearned financial aid for which he is qualified because of circumstances wholly unrelated to his athletic skill, and which, in fact, is not awarded on the basis of athletic ability in whole or in part.

Each institution is required to publish its regulations setting forth the conditions under which financial aid to athletes may be granted, renewed, or withdrawn.

All scholarships and grants-in-aid to athletes must be awarded on the fundamental basis of demonstrated academic ability to perform satisfactory college work as measured by performance in secondary schools and/or by scholastic aptitude tests. "Academic ability" is not demonstrated merely by admission to college. Promise of superior performance in extracurricular activities, including athletics, may be one of the factors considered in awarding scholar-

ships and grants-in-aid. When promise of superior performance in extracurricular activities, including athletics, is one of the factors considered in awarding scholarships or grants-in-aid the recipient must, nevertheless, have met the fundamental requirement of academic ability.

When scholarships or grants-in-aid are awarded, the terms and conditions of the award must be stated in writing to the recipient when the award is made.

G) *Student Employment*.—No institution shall permit athletic eligibility to any student who receives compensation from any employer unless (a) he is performing useful work, (b) he is being paid at the going rate in his locality for work performed, and (c) he is working on the job all the time for which he is being paid.

H) *Recruiting*.—Members of the institutional staff, including coaches or other official representatives of athletic interests, shall not solicit the attendance of any prospective student with the offer of financial aid or equivalent inducements. This prohibition, however, shall not be construed to prevent institutional representatives from giving upon request information regarding scholarships, grants-in-aid, or employment opportunities.

No institution shall, directly or through its athletic staff members, or by any other means, pay the traveling expenses of any prospective athlete for a visit to its campus, nor shall the institution arrange for or permit excessive entertainment of such prospective student during a visit to the campus.

No institution shall, on its campus or elsewhere, conduct or have conducted in its behalf any athletic practice session or test at which one or more prospective students reveal, demonstrate, or display their abilities in any branch of sports.

Part II

A Standing Committee and Its Responsibilities

1. That a standing committee of the Commission on Colleges and Universities be set up to interpret and administer the Association's policy on intercollegiate athletics, and to prepare a schedule of penalties to be applied in cases of violation;

2. That the Committee be composed of five persons appointed by the Chairman of the Commission on Colleges and Universities with the advice of the Commission and subject to the approval of the Executive Committee of the Association. The Committee would report to the Commission at the Annual Meeting and to the Board of Review, acting for the Commission, at such times as might be necessary between Annual Meetings;

3. That the Committee develop working relationships with the athletic conferences and the National Collegiate Athletic Association looking toward the utilization of the resources and machinery of these organizations in the enforcement of appropriate standards for the conduct of intercollegiate athletics;

4. That the Committee develop procedures for dealing with member higher institutions of the Association that are not members of an athletic conference;

5. That the Committee devise and recommend to the Commission appropriate reporting procedures for the member higher institutions of the Association and the athletic conferences in the area of intercollegiate athletics;

6. That the Committee establish and maintain liaison with the other regional accrediting associations with a view to promoting inter-association cooperation in the establishment and enforcement of standards for the conduct of

intercollegiate athletics;

7. That, in the event of the failure of an athletic organization to secure conformity by a member higher institution to standards considered appropriate by the North Central Association, the Committee intervene and, after proper investigation, recommend penalties to the Commission on Colleges and Universities.

THE USAFI MANUAL

AT THIS DATE of writing (February, 1955), the Association has recently concluded an outstanding project for the benefit of those who will be inducted into military service: the *USAFI Manual*. The story has been partially told on page 151 of the October, 1954, issue of *THE QUARTERLY*; is referred to in the report of the Eighth Annual Convocation of the State Chairmen; and treated at length in the article by Charles Boardman in the current number. Although the Committee on the Study of the United States Armed Forces Institute which completed this project is a committee of the Executive Committee of the Association (see page 1 of the July, 1954, issue of *THE QUARTERLY*), an account of its work was very appropriately given to the Commission on Secondary Schools, since the *Manual* was written for use in secondary schools.

Lowell B. Fisher is chairman of the Committee. After describing the project, he introduced Colonel Henry Moss, of the I and E Branch of the Department of Defense, Washington, D. C. Colonel Moss, in his very brief remarks, included the following statements:

It is obvious that the North Central Association has recognized its responsibilities, both to the boys and girls: the girls are intimately concerned with what happens to the boys and the boys are certainly intimately concerned with what is going to happen to them for a minimum of two years [in the Armed Services].

It appears to me that it [the *Manual*] is a

highly significant and highly important work that will provide some counselling to youngsters in order that they may articulate their present service with their post service lives. I think that the scope of a work such as this is fairly large—that there are a great many organizations which are involved and I think that those of us who have worked with it for a long time recognize that this [the full project] is a rather large mouthful to bite off. It is going to take some time.

Included among the "great many organizations" that Colonel Moss referred to is the American Council on Education. The Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences is a division of the American Council. Dr. Ernest Whitworth, Director of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, was next introduced by Mr. Fisher. Dr. Whitworth spoke as follows:

Dr. Ernest Whitworth

Members of the Commission on Secondary Schools and other members of this Association, I do bring very warm greetings from Arthur S. Adams, President, American Council on Education. He wanted me to say that we are very happy to cooperate with Lowell's committee in this very worthy project and also to act as liaison with the North Central Association and other regional accrediting associations in this project on a nation-wide basis.

I would like to make a few remarks that Lowell asked me to make regarding the work of the Commission and some of the principles under which it operates.

The Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences of the American Council on Education is a civilian agency which cooperates with educational institutions and national, regional and state organizations concerned with educational experiences of military personnel. Certain principles have been set forth in accordance with which the Commission has agreed to

operate. I believe that everyone who is concerned with this work should be fully informed with regard to these principles, which I have tried to summarize in the following three statements:

1. The acceptance of credit for service experiences rests solely in the hands of individual educational institutions and credit should be granted only in accordance with their own established policies and standards.

Occasionally, pressure is brought to bear on an institution to grant credit for service experience. It is the hope of the Commission that such pressure from whatever source be resisted vigorously. The Armed Services themselves look with disfavor on such practice and have made splendid progress in informing their education officers in the field as to their responsibilities in this matter.

2. The Commission will continue to recommend the granting of credit for educational experiences which have a counterpart in recognized civilian institutions and only for those programs for which there is adequate evidence of measured achievement and accomplishment.

I hope that this point makes it perfectly clear that the Commission does not favor the granting of "blanket credit" merely because an individual has served in the Armed Forces. This practice is educationally unsound; also it is unfair to the individual to credit him with having achieved an educational objective for which there is no "adequate evidence of measured achievement and accomplishment." Fortunately, this practice is not quite so prevalent as it was immediately after World War II, but nevertheless, according to our recent survey, there are still about 210 higher institutions in the country awarding credit as a gift and, believe it or not, this gift ranges from two to eighteen semester hours and amounts to about eight semester hours on the average.

3. Specific credit recommendations made by the American Council on Education will continue to be based on the best judgment of civilian educational consultants who are recognized for their special competence in their respective subject matter fields. Each recommendation is the result of the combined judgment of three such civilian specialists.

I am sure that this group will be interested to know that the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, commonly referred to as the "Tuttle Guide," is now in process of revision by the American Council on Education. This publication, again under the guidance of George P. Tuttle, will attempt to identify and evaluate all service training programs currently given by the several military services as well as courses which have been offered since 1945, when the original "Guide" was published.

It is expected that this revised "Guide" will be available for distribution about October 1, 1954. One copy will be sent without charge to each high school in the United States. Further information regarding this publication is contained in the *Newsletter* published by the Commission for the first time this month. Other items of information in connection with the accreditation of service experiences appear in the *Newsletter*. Copies of this pamphlet are available to those who may not have received them by mail.

In this connection, I should like to state that our Commission stands ready at all times to be of whatever service it can in assisting high schools and colleges in the evaluation of educational experiences of the returning veterans.

THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK WITH THE AMERICAN DEPENDENTS' SCHOOLS

THE READER will sense in the following columns the climate of the relations which the North Central Association

maintains with the thirty schools for children of the Armed Services who are living in foreign lands. Edgar G. Johnston who, with Lowell B. Fisher, had recently returned from an official visit to the schools in the European Theatre, was the first speaker at the annual meeting of the Commission on Secondary Schools at which four representatives of various Services discussed the basic educational values of these relations. These five presentations struck a climactic note, as the reader will see. If wherever an Englishman goes there goes England, the affiliation of the Dependents' Schools with the Association equally means that wherever go the child dependents of the Armed Services there goes the American school.

The whole European educational enterprise which is reflected in the presentations which follow is best described in "How Young Americans Study under the D.E.O. in Europe" as reported by Earl R. Sifert in the January, 1955, issue of *THE QUARTERLY*. Mr. Sifert was president of the North Central Association in 1953-54, and resigned his long superintendency of the Proviso Township High School, at Maywood, Illinois, to become the director of the Dependents' Education Organization, the Dependents' Education Group, with his headquarters in Europe. He assumed office in July, 1954.

Those who shared the program with Mr. Johnston at Chicago on March 24, 1954, were fittingly introduced by Mr. Fisher who then was chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools. The Committee on Dependents' Schools which is frequently mentioned by the five speakers reported below is one of the committees of that Commission. Mr. Fisher's introductions were a significant feature of the program. Those whom he introduced after Mr. John-

ston's brief presentation were:

COLONEL ROBERT MOUNT, representative of the Adjutant General's office in Washington, D. C., which finances the Dependents' Schools for the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force.

DR. FARNHAM POPE, head of the Air Force schools, Washington, D. C.

MR. GEORGE WILKINS, head of the Navy schools, Washington, D. C.

COLONEL JOHN L. STEELE, representative of General William Hoag, Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army in Europe, with headquarters in Heidelberg, Germany.

DR. EDGAR G. JOHNSTON requires no identification to readers of *THE QUARTERLY*. He has risen through years of service to the highest office in the Association: its presidency.

(NOTE.—Since all these speakers spoke extemporaneously, the following reports are taken from the stenotypist's account of what they said.
—EDITOR.)

Inception and Operation of Relations with Dependents' Schools

(Edgar G. Johnston)

It was seven years ago when the first Dependents' School requested membership in this Association. That came after the annual meeting and the Executive Committee turned the question of its acceptance to the Administrative Committee which put Lowell Fisher to work drawing up some principles which would apply to these schools. I think that I should read you briefly the statements of our governing principles in relation to these Dependents' Schools.

It was agreed that these are schools for the children of military and civilian personnel in the overseas areas where American troops are stationed.

It was agreed that the Commission should establish a standing committee on American Dependents' Schools.

It was agreed that this committee should function as a State Committee functions. As you know, we largely decentralize the work of this Association, and for these Dependents' Schools it seemed that there should be some group which served to consider their interests, to review policies, and to bring to them our *principles, policies, regulations* and *criteria* for the approval of these schools.

It was determined that our *principles, policies, regulations* and *criteria* should also govern the evaluation and approval of these schools. In other words, we felt that they should be considered as schools in our territory.

The Committee on American Dependents' Schools, however, gave special consideration to the peculiar circumstances under which these schools operate.

In general, the Dependents' School should not be denied membership because it fails to meet specific standards if its total pattern, purpose, and operations seem effective. It is especially important that teachers be well qualified and that adequate library and laboratory facilities be available. In reviewing application of American Dependents' Schools, close attention should be paid to these considerations. Small enrollment should not be a major factor in denying admission if the purpose of the school is justifiable, if the teachers meet the standards, and if adequate library and laboratory facilities are provided.

In Michigan or Illinois, if a school of thirty-five were to apply for membership in the Association, I think it would be discouraged by its State Committee because the needs of the pupils would be better served if that school were to combine with some other schools to provide richer resources. This is not possible overseas, for instance in the Far East where these

schools may be five hundred miles apart, or even in the American zone of Berlin.

We also felt that the applications of member schools should be considered by the Association in its regular procedure. They should go through the regular committees, so that was provided as the procedure for recognition and continued membership. Finally, we felt that since it seemed evident that the problems of the Dependents' Schools also are related to the other Associations and that some of these Dependents' School graduates would be returning to Mississippi, New England, or elsewhere, that we should have the cooperation of these Associations. Therefore, we arranged for a meeting with them and at that time certain agreements were arrived at.

In the first place, they felt that, since we had the machinery set up, the North Central Association should be the accrediting agency for all regional Associations, that they would honor our recognition of these schools, and that reciprocal recognition would be set up by the other Associations.

At that same meeting it was pointed out that because these schools were far distant from the United States, it was important to have some kind of a direct contact with them. So the suggestion was made that schools applying be visited by some qualified secondary educator satisfactory to our Association (either someone who was in the area for other purposes and was serving the Armed Services or the State Department) or by special teams which might be sent over.

Well, that was the arrangement by which the first teams were sent to Europe and to the Far East. It was felt by all that there should be such a contact and so the provision was made again this year for visits by such teams.

I am not going to go into detail as to

the procedure and what we found. I would like to say that in our visit to the European schools we spent, in general, about six hours in each school. We visited each class and we had conferences with the teachers, the administrator, and the military representatives of the school. We visited seventeen schools in six weeks and I know that the schedules of the other teams were as busy as ours.

May I state briefly the things that seemed to me significant? I think that we as an Association are partners in a unique experiment in education. I don't think that any other nation with a large number of troops on foreign soil has set up schools, either for their troops or for the children of their troops.

I think that some of you who are familiar with the stories of the British forces may remember the tragedy present in so many cases when children of military personnel in India had to be sent home to England to be educated and families were separated for years.

It has been the point of view of the American military that the morale of our troops abroad is best supported by keeping families together and that families are best held together when there are educational opportunities comparable to those they may have at home. I think that it is a tribute to this Association that the armed services came to us to participate in this experiment.

Of course, there are problems in this relationship. There were problems for the military who had never before attempted the setting up of such schools. There were the problems of supply. There were the problems of obtaining and keeping a qualified teaching staff and the problems of an adequate supervisory staff for the schools. I think that those problems are being worked out satisfactorily.

I want to say that the quality of teachers we saw was not only as good as but superior to what we would find in schools of comparable size in the States. Here I want to say that you as members of this Association can help the Dependents' School program. Its effectiveness really depends on the support of the Association, first, in knowing about these schools. Actually, I suppose, if you were to ask a random group of North Central principals about the Dependents' Schools, possibly not more than one in five would know anything about them.

The second way in which you can help is to encourage teachers from your schools to request leave of absence to apply for teaching positions in these Dependents' Schools. You should encourage them to apply for an extended leave of absence for two or three years in order to provide some continuity. I am sure that if you do that, that these teachers will come back to you professionally much richer and much better. This contribution is one that I think members of this Association can and should make.

These schools are little islands of America in foreign soil. They also are something else—they are a contribution to international understanding. We were very deeply impressed when we saw a panel of younger Austrian high school children discussing, in an English class, the difference between theirs and an American school. Our students were interested in the difference between the Austrian type of education and their own. We also found some very effective international relations clubs.

I think that these schools can be a very real contribution to a problem that is extremely important and difficult: our role in the world today—the place of America in the future of the world. If we are to be effective in our

relationship to the rest of the world, it will be in large part because we have come to understand the problems of these other nations with which we are associated. I think that a great part of that contribution can come from these young people who are having the opportunity of education abroad.

In conclusion I would just like to say that it seems to me that the method of setting up these schools and of carrying out these programs is a tribute to the vision and to the loyalty to the democratic principles of our American democracy. The Army, Navy, and the Air Force have been concerned with transplanting to these corners of foreign soil the two most significant American characteristics—the American home and the American school. Therefore, in carrying out that relationship I believe that we in the North Central Association should play a sympathetic part and a helpful and distinctive role.

The Adjutant General's Office
(Colonel Robert Mount)

We are in constant touch with the Commission's Committee on Dependents' Schools and the members of the visiting teams but we do not often have this opportunity to speak to a broad portion of the membership of the North Central Association itself.

This year marks about seven years of a very happy and successful association that the Army has had with the North Central Association. I say "the Army" because I believe that we were the first to ask for help from the North Central Association and receive it. Since that time, the Army schools have grown and so have those of the other Services. The result is that all three of the Services are now in the picture.

Our growth in number of schools has not been too great. About seven years

ago they got off to a slow start and have now grown to about twenty. However, the number of pupils has grown considerably. But we still do not have enough high school students to make a real good, big, high school. At present, we have approximately 3,250. However, our problem is that this number is spread all the way from Berlin to the Far East. That really is the basis of our problems.

I would like to limit my remarks to the work of the Committee on Dependents' Schools and of the visiting teams, because it has been a difficult task for this Committee over this seven-year period. I certainly want to pay tribute to those people who have put in a tremendous amount of long, hard work in our behalf.

I want to pay tribute to the visiting teams which have visited our overseas schools. These visits have been an excellent thing for the school system as a whole, for the teachers, and for the school authorities. You really have to be over there to appreciate how much they have meant to the schools.

I know that when I made a trip to these European schools about a year and a half ago, the one thing that they emphasized was the regard with which they hold the North Central Association. As one enters the principal's or the superintendent's office, the first thing one sees is the membership certificate of the Association on the wall. They are proud of that certificate and they put it right where everybody can see it, and when they have money enough to print school stationery, membership in the North Central Association is also mentioned. Therefore, one sees that it does mean a great deal to them.

I want to say also that the benefits derived from the visiting teams to a very great extent have extended into the elementary grades as well. Their

influence has been felt very strongly there. Thus the advice they have given when we have had to call on them for assistance in one form or another has been very valuable.

I want to tell you that the schools welcome such teams; their visits have given them a tremendous lift. To have these people come over from the United States has established a connecting link between education in the States and the schools overseas. That really has been a marvelous thing.

As a representative of the Department of the Army, I want to take this opportunity to express my thanks for the helpful work which the Association as a whole, especially through its committees and visiting teams, has done for our Dependents' Schools throughout the world.

The Air Force
(Farnham Pope)

It is a privilege to be able to speak to you this morning about our overseas schools. We in the military know that it is a distinct privilege to be associated with the North Central Association. I had an opportunity yesterday to express to the members of the Committee on Dependents' Schools some of my feelings. I would also like to take this brief opportunity to express them to you.

Our first concern in affiliating ourselves with the North Central Association was for the benefit of our children through having our schools recognized so that their credits would be readily transferable to schools in the United States. That, of course, was our starting point.

Now, having shared the overseas visits of your representatives, I have had an opportunity to observe that this is but one of the benefits that we receive. When I talked with people in

the schools, I readily learned that they were very grateful to have educators from the States come along and look over their programs.

The personnel in the Dependents' Schools are well trained, but they do at times feel that they have got quite far away from American education and they want to be assured that they are doing the job that they think they are doing.

I believe that one of the important things that your people have done is to leave the impression that while they were there to see that the schools were doing as fine a job as possible, they were there in a cooperative capacity as well. At the meetings which your representatives had with the school faculties, there was a spirit of great warmth and harmony. The faculties tried to express, in their own way, their appreciation of your having come so far to give them this encouragement.

I observe that this is a very important stimulus for getting things done in the civilian-type schools that are associated with the military. The military has, from time to time, some complicated procedures for getting things done; thus for you to bring together all of the problems and put them before the military at one time has very definitely made for some rapid moves to square away these problems. I shall close by saying that your services go well beyond mere accreditation.

The Navy
(George Wilkins)

Accreditation really means more to us than it does to you. Our youngsters are coming back from foreign countries and usually from schools which most school people in this country have never heard of. Therefore, you can see why it means so much to us that credits be recognized; at least that the name

of the school be listed somewhere so that you can satisfy yourself that there is a school in a given place.

I would like to tell you just a little about this schooling. In the first place, these dependents are scattered throughout the world. I am speaking strictly of Navy dependents. A check that I made the other day indicates that we have Navy dependents attending school in sixty-three foreign countries, and we have Navy operated schools in fifteen foreign countries.

These youngsters first secure their schooling either through schools operated by the Services or through privately operated or religious schools. Finally, when there is nothing available and when the language barrier is so great that they cannot study in a local school, we resort to home-study correspondence courses. I believe that the two correspondence courses that are used most frequently are those put out by the Calvert School of Baltimore, Maryland, and by the University of Nebraska. I may be wrong, but I am speaking strictly about Navy procedures. I have not checked with the other Services.

In the schools themselves we have several problems. Of course the first one is always that old problem of money. I don't believe there is any need for me to talk about it for I am sure that all of you are familiar with it.

Another problem is adequate buildings. The one that we occupy in Naples is a little, old, third-rate hotel. The housekeeper lives on one floor and her chickens occupy the playground area in the back. If the children go out to play and disturb the chickens and as a consequence the housekeeper does not have fresh eggs for breakfast, she is greatly disturbed. She is also operating a large hotel that is used for quarters by the American personnel and if for any reason her operation sort of goes

to pot, it is likely to lead to a violation of the treaty between the United States and Italy. Believe me, it is no joking matter when one of our children disturbs the housekeeper's chickens. Of course, I know that at this distance you get a laugh out of this situation.

The schools which we operate we are trying to make as typically American as we possibly can. Our curriculum is, of necessity, restricted. We lean more strongly toward the fundamental requirements for graduation which are current throughout most of the states. Laboratory facilities necessarily have to be limited. We do not have the space, or the equipment; neither do we have the pupils to sustain it.

Our teacher turnover, in most cases, runs 100 percent each two school terms. Our pupil turnover is perhaps a little more rapid than that. They come to us with a lapse in their schooling anywhere from a week to six weeks and we have to try to bring them up.

As to books, if you walk into one of our schools you will see the same textbooks that you are using in your schools. Of course, our study and our daily schedule are similar to yours. Our extracurricular activities also are similar. In other words, we are trying to provide these youngsters with educational facilities that will enable them most readily to slide right back into an American public school, and, of course, do it with the least trouble to them and to you.

If their credits indicate that they are a little short of something that they would have had in the States, we ask you to recognize the difficulties that they have faced and try to help them accordingly.

As a final request, I would like to ask that you give us constructive criticism which will enable us to make these schools better for the youngsters who are attending them.

Headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army in Europe

(Colonel John L. Steele)

I am not going to make a detailed speech. I do, however, want to bring you the personal greetings of General Hoag, Commander-in-Chief of the U. S. Army in Europe, General John Van Houten, who is our Assistant Chief of Staff and G-1 in the personnel administration of that headquarters. When I say "personal greetings," I mean precisely that.

These men have tremendous responsibilities. General Hoag's are widespread and he has a tremendous staff to help him. If you were to think of all of the gentlemen in the first three rows here as Brigadier and Major Generals and the rest of the people as Colonels, Lieutenant Colonels and other commissioned officers, you would have a picture of the major portion of the General's staff in Heidelberg. Each of those gentlemen has a different responsibility. One may be spending his time on schools for American children. Another may be spending his time on ways in which the new atomic artillery may be used. Somebody else may be concerned with the quality of the food which is received by the command. Another person may have the responsibility for German-American relations. There is a multitude of problems and yet General Hoag has a detailed and specific interest in this problem that I am concerned with—the Dependents' Schools.

I think that I ought to point out that the idea of having the American family abroad is an element of the new United States role in world leadership. We are not over there as we were during the war, for a temporary situation. We are establishing a long-range program of

Western world leadership. The fact that we have families there is partially an indication of the permanence of our role, even though we plan, as everyone knows, for an increasing responsibility on the part of the Western powers and the possible release of the major portions of our own personnel.

We have a role in helping the organization of a solid Western pattern of power and a part of that consists in giving those people an example of what democracy means to us.

Our schools have a tremendous role to play in this program. We feel that with our American school system we are not only setting examples, but we are giving our own children who will come back to the States an unusual experience in international relations.

We have only eleven high schools in France and Germany, which are the main areas of the U. S. Army responsibility in Europe. We have approximately one hundred elementary schools, which are the Federal schools for those high schools, scattered throughout Germany and France. They are American schools, in an American setting, but they go beyond the customary American practice of taking advantage of the local situation.

All of our children are taught from the first grade the language of the country in which they are stationed. They are taught German and French in our schools.

We take our children on field trips and we have visits to the German schools and to the German places of interest. We go to concerts and we have student exchanges—German students in our schools and our students in German schools—for short periods of time. Also, our German-American and French-American clubs mean a great deal in getting our children to understand European problems.

We are trying to build all this upon

the top of a program that is designed to meet the highest standards set by the North Central Association. I want to say also that in all of these things we also greatly appreciate the efforts that have been made by the North Central Association to help us in planning and establishing standards for those schools.

We and the school people enjoyed very much the visit of Lowell Fisher and Edgar Johnston last fall. They also kidded us about the fact that we had a mysterious convoy of trucks that went along a day or two ahead to move the requisite six thousand volumes from one library to the next. They even said that we used the inverted type of vacuum cleaners to provide the necessary amount of dust on top of these volumes. They looked very thoroughly at our schools and they have told us that they like them. We also like them and we are proud of them and we want to extend our thanks to all of you for your help.

STATE CHAIRMEN HOLD THEIR EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVOCATION

As is now their custom, the nineteen state chairmen held an annual get-together—their eighth—at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia. The dates of the meeting were September 26 to 29, 1954. The reader may wonder why only the announcement of this meeting has thus far appeared in these columns (October, 1954). The answer is simple: the timeliness of reports within the material limits set for THE QUARTERLY gives precedence to some matters over others, but not to their importance. Under this principle of operation, the Eighth Annual Conference of the chairmen has had to wait.

Secretary A. J. Gibson, of the Commission on Secondary Schools, promptly sent THE QUARTERLY a very

comprehensive account of the meeting—ten typed pages, to be exact. The items which appear below are abbreviated gleanings from his report. Fifty individuals identified with the Association and with the West Virginia State Department of Education attended some or all of the sessions.

Jackson's Mill is the site of the West Virginia 4-H Camp, the first of its kind in the United States. The members of the conference were housed and fed at the Camp and the meetings were held there.

Sunday, September 26

The chairman and invited participants began arriving by mid-afternoon. At 7:30 they attended a reception provided by the West Virginia State Department of Education. Dr. W. W. Trent, State Superintendent of Free Schools, welcomed the group, and Floyd A. Miller, chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools responded.

Monday, September 27

The forenoon and afternoon meetings were devoted to reports by the President of the Association and by committees of the three Commissions.

President Edgar G. Johnston

President Johnston gave a brief historical sketch of the seven preceding annual meetings. He next stated that a Committee on Public Relations had been authorized and a Committee on Organization of the North Central Association had been planned. (*Note: This committee will supplant the Committee on Reorganization.—EDITOR.*) He further reported that Mr. Boardman, Secretary of the Association, is assembling and codifying the By-Laws of the Association to make them more readily available, and therefore more useful.

Committees of the Executive Committee

Committee on Public Relations.—In the absence of Harlan C. Koch, chairman, Secretary Boardman reported for the newly created committee. He explained that it had been commissioned to coordinate the public relations of the entire North Central Association and that Mr. Frank Mayer, of Minneapolis, has been employed by the Association as its Public Relations Agent. In this capacity he will work closely with the Committee. To be effective, the Committee on Public Relations will have to rely heavily upon the cooperation of the state chairmen.

Committee on USAFI.—Chairman Lowell Fisher reported for the Committee. Its work represents a very important enterprise, since the *Source Unit* of study for secondary schools will run to 30,000 copies. Every high school in the United States will receive a free copy. Plans call for a contract with the American Council on Education for the publishing of this Unit which, at the time of Mr. Fisher's report, had received the approval of all the Regional Accrediting Associations except New England, which was giving it consideration; by all the Military Services and agencies except the United States Marine Corps; and by the National Secondary Principals' Association.

Committees of the Commission on Secondary Schools

American Dependent's Schools' Committee.—Mr. Gibson reported on the thirty Dependents' Schools located in three Commands: the European Theatre, the Caribbean Theatre, and the Far East. He stated that the Committee had recently given attention to the "High School Equivalency Certificate." It recommends that such a

certificate not be issued by the Dependents' Schools, but rather that it be issued by the United States Armed Forces Institute in each case where an individual could not obtain it through his local high school or state. He concluded this phase of his report by saying that it is understood that the USAFI will issue a more attractive transcript which may be used instead of the equivalency certificate.

Activities Committee.—Since Otto Hughes, the chairman of the Committee, was absent, Richard K. Klein, chairman of the North Dakota State Committee, reported in his stead. It was recommended that the Activities Committee and the Committee on Athletics of the Commission on Colleges and Universities coordinate their work and make a joint report [since both are deeply interested in the athletic situation]. Secretary Burns, of the latter Commission, was requested to invite Chairman Hughes to meet with the Committee on Athletics. The written report which Mr. Klein presented dealt primarily with the problem of recruitment, so it was determined that no action should be taken on the report until the two committees could hold a joint meeting.

The Committee submitted the following recommendations concerning the recruitment of high school students by institutions of higher learning:

1. That high school graduation or its equivalent as evidenced by qualifying examinations recognized by accredited institutions of higher learning as a part of their admissions policies be a prerequisite to admission to institutions.
2. That transcripts of high school credits be sent by the recognized authority of the high school and that such transcripts be sent only to the office of admissions upon request of the institution of higher learning.
3. That grants-in-aid be awarded to eligible students on a fair and equitable basis, with due regard to the student's need, special abilities, and probable success in college

and that recruitment of all students and contact pertaining thereto conform to the duly constituted guidance policies of the secondary school involved.

4. That continuous eligibility to recipients of grants-in-aid be limited to those students who make normal progress toward a college degree.
5. That funds to provide grants-in-aid be placed in a central depository of the institution of higher learning to be drawn out only on approval of a representative of the sponsoring agency and that said funds be administered according to the published policy pertaining to grants-in-aid of the institution.
6. That all students be required to meet the regular admissions standards of the institution before benefiting from grants-in-aid.
7. That high school days and other activities held on college campuses which involve high school pupils be scheduled at such time that high school students do not lose school time.
8. That the Activities Committee of the Secondary Commission of the North Central Association assume the responsibility of informing all interested parties of the provisions of the policies and procedures on recruitment of such organizations as the NCAA, the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, the National Association of Health and Physical Education, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Cooperating Committee on Research.—Stephen A. Romine, chairman, reported for his committee. He dealt with the results of an inquiry pertaining to the effectiveness of the Association with particular reference to the practices of the Commission on Secondary Schools. (NOTE: Owing to the grass-roots character of this survey of opinion, especial attention is called to the complete report in the January issue of THE QUARTERLY.—EDITOR.)

Committees of the Commission on Colleges and Universities

General report.—Norman Burns, the secretary, reported the recent activities of the Commission. The keynote of his report was the shift of primary attention from the status of marginal institutions, to more challenging as-

pects of educational leadership; in short, that accreditation, as such, should be subordinate to consultative services, self-study programs, and the like. To that end, the Commission would work through three major committees: Planning, Reorganization, and Professional Education.

Harold L. Bitting, chairman of the Commission, extended Mr. Burns's remarks about the Committee on Professional Education which has been commissioned to deal with the problem of coordinating the multifarious accrediting organizations now operating in North Central territory. He stated that eleven regional meetings would be held to discuss possible action which might eventuate in a proposed amendment to the constitution of the Association.

Committees of the Commission on Research and Service

Fred Totten, chairman of the Commission, reported briefly on the organization of the Commission: A Steering Committee, and three major committees—Teacher Education, Experimental Units, and Current Educational Problems. Walter L. Cooper, the secretary, briefly discussed the work of the Subcommittee on School Libraries, one of nine subcommittees currently at work upon as many special projects. (NOTE.—For comprehensive reports of seven subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service the reader should turn to THE QUARTERLY for January, 1955, pp. 238-56.—EDITOR.)

General Discussion

Before the conference adjourned for the evening meeting, "discussion from the floor" dealt with possible historical studies of the work of the Association; with the effect of the many new specialized accrediting bodies on the work of regional accrediting organizations; and with the extent to which colleges

are accepting graduates from non-accredited schools.

Monday Evening

This was a dinner gathering, featured by music, and an address by Dr. Roy Bird Cook, of Charleston, West Virginia, noted author and authority on the life of Stonewall Jackson. His subject was "Stonewall Jackson, the Boy and the Man." The speaker exhibited many original documents bearing "Stonewall's" signature.

Tuesday, September 28

Tuesday was devoted to the following matters:

1. By formal action the Chairman decided to hold the 1955 meeting in Colorado. It is understood that Indiana will be the host state in 1956 and Minnesota, in 1957. Specific dates and places will be determined by the respective State Committees.

2. Action was taken to request the Executive Committee of the Association to consider some other city, or cities, than Chicago as sites for the annual meeting of the Association.

3. Adequacy of provisions for the work of the respective State Chairmen—financial assistance, equipment, office space, time allocation, secretarial help, and so on—by their individual institutions whether universities or state departments of Education—was discussed. It was agreed that they were adequately provided for with the possible exception of Missouri. The estimated time devoted to the work of the Association was variously estimated from one-fourth to three-fourths of their time.

4. State Chairman Kent Leach, of Michigan, reviewed a proposal for the possible four-year rotation of the chairmanship in that state. It was the consensus that such a rotation would not be conducive to the successful opera-

tion of the office and therefore not in the best interest of the North Central Association.

5. On motion it was agreed that a recommendation be carried to the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools, that a "workshop program" for the consideration of practical problems be set up for Thursday afternoon of the Annual Meeting of the Association; that state chairmen not participate in such workshops, or panels, and that high school principals be the participants; and that such topics as the following be discussed:

- (a) The work of the Committee on the Study of the United States Armed Forces Institute.
- (b) The work of the Activities Committee.
- (c) The "high-school librarian problem."
- (d) Teacher shortage and teacher recruitment.
- (e) Pupil-teacher ratio.
- (f) Pupil transportation.
- (g) Building facilities and curriculum trends as they affect new-building plans.
- (h) Effective use of building facilities.
- (i) Integration.
- (j) Unstructured discussion.
- (k) Study-hall trends.
- (l) "Policies, Regulations, and Criteria" of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

6. It was recommended that all publications of the Association be publicly displayed at the Annual Meeting.

7. It was recommended that the Commission on Research and Service study the possibility of the accrediting of three-year junior high schools.

Wednesday, September 29

Activities centered upon a general summarization of actions and discussions in preceding sessions. Since the tabulation of reports received by the respective state chairmen has become an onerous task, attention was given to the possible use of IBM machines for rapid treatment of such paper work. The question of a standard code for

universal use if IBM processing be adopted was referred to the Report Forms Committee.

The Eighth Annual Meeting of State Chairmen adjourned.

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The Educational Program of the United States Armed Forces Institute

THE UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE, commonly known as USAFI, was inaugurated in 1941 as an educational agency of the War Department. USAFI came into being because the Armed Forces believed it was essential to provide for the educational needs of men and women who entered the services from civilian life, the vast majority of whom would return to civilian life when their term of service was completed. Its purpose, therefore, is to perform two broad functions: (1) to provide opportunity for men and women in the Armed Forces to continue civilian education while in service; (2) to improve the educational level of persons in service so they may perform their assignments more efficiently and become more capable of assuming greater responsibilities. The fact that more than three million service personnel have enrolled in courses offered by USAFI since it began operations in April, 1942, suggests that it has met a definite need of men and women in the Armed Forces.

This report is an attempt to make a descriptive evaluation of the educa-

tional activities of USAFI.² It is designed to serve three purposes: (1) to furnish school administrators, teachers, and counselors who are engaged in stimulating and helping youth to plan to continue their education while in service with information concerning the educational materials and procedures used by USAFI so they may be more certain their advice and guidance is sound; (2) to provide both youth entering service and their parents with evidence concerning the nature and worth of the course offerings and the materials of instruction of USAFI as a means of reaching their goals, whether these be preparation for a vocation or progress in high school or college; and (3) to supply information concerning the means by which USAFI measures achievement and also concerning the success of those who have taken USAFI tests in civilian occupations and in college.

To accomplish these purposes a brief review of the organization of USAFI

¹ This article was written by Mr. Boardman for the Committee on the Study of the Armed Forces Institute. The members of the Committee are: Lowell B. Fisher (Chairman), Frank H. Byers (Assistant to the Chairman), George A. Beck, Norman Burns, J. Fred Murphy, and Ernest Whitworth.

² The data for this report came from the following sources: (1) Information collected by the N.C.A. Committee on the Study of USAFI. (2) Conferences with USAFI personnel at Madison, Wisconsin, and with representatives of the Armed Forces at Washington, D.C. (3) USAFI Catalog, 1954. (4) A study of selected educational materials of USAFI. (5) Unpublished studies of the work of USAFI made by distinguished educators. (6) W. W. Charters, *Opportunities for the Continuation of Education in the Armed Forces* (Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1952).

and the educational services it offers will be made followed by a discussion of its procedures in developing courses, instructional materials, and tests, and the values of the USAFI program to service personnel both while they are in service and when they return to civilian life.

THE ORGANIZATION OF USAFI

Since USAFI provides educational services to men and women in the Armed Forces wherever they may be stationed, its organization has to be somewhat elaborate. It is a unit in the Department of Defense operating directly under the Office of Armed Forces Education and Information which promulgates the policies and procedures governing its organization and activities. All courses offered and the educational policies and procedures of USAFI are determined and endorsed by the Committee on the Armed Forces Education Program. This Committee is composed of fourteen distinguished educators and seven members of the military services. This latter group is composed of a representative from the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard, respectively, and two representatives from the Department of Defense.

The headquarters of USAFI are located at Madison, Wisconsin, hereafter referred to as USAFI Madison. This office has the complete responsibility for administering the activities of USAFI, selecting, developing, and distributing educational materials, and maintaining records concerning enrollments and educational achievement. USAFI Madison is the sole agency authorized to issue reports concerning courses and tests completed under the United States Armed Forces Education Program.

Since USAFI operates on a worldwide basis the organization is decentral-

ized so as to provide for rapid and efficient servicing of educational materials for personnel stationed in any area. USAFI Madison provides materials for personnel in the continental United States and USAFI installations which operate in five overseas areas, Alaska, the Caribbean, Europe, Hawaii, and Japan. These overseas installations function under the commanders of the respective theaters but are governed by the same policies and procedures as USAFI Madison. Supplies of course materials, tests, and records of enrollments are maintained by the overseas installations. Course papers are graded and tests are scored by both overseas installations and USAFI Madison. All official permanent records of educational achievement are maintained at USAFI Madison. The servicing of applications, course papers, and tests is rapid, requiring about seven days for continental enrollees and approximately two weeks for overseas personnel.

The organization of USAFI seems sound and appropriate for the conditions under which it must operate. Since it was established and is supported by the Armed Forces to provide educational opportunities for men and women in service, the Department of Defense should retain control and direction of all policies and procedures which concern the relations of USAFI to the Armed Forces. The cooperation of competent civilian educators in determining course offerings and educational policies is also sound if the program of instruction is to be educationally acceptable. Economy in operation and better procedures in developing and distributing educational materials and in maintaining records are promoted by centralizing all such activities in USAFI Madison. On the other hand, the establishment of USAFI centers in the several military

theaters provides for rapid and efficient service to the personnel in the Armed Forces, wherever they may be stationed.

THE NATURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

7

An educational program for men and women in the Armed Forces must be developed in the light of certain factors peculiar to the Armed Forces. It must be a program for adults, the great majority of whom will return to civilian life, entering civilian occupations or civilian schools and colleges. It must be suited to the great diversity of the personnel in ability, educational level, needs, interests, and objectives. Since the opportunity and the conditions for study will be controlled by the obligations of service in the Armed Forces, the materials and means of instruction must be appropriate to the exigencies of military life.

In developing its educational program USAFI has recognized the importance of these factors. At present it offers 287 courses at the elementary school, secondary school, and college levels.¹ This offering covers six fields of learning as follows:

Communication.—Written and spoken English at all educational levels.

Mathematics.—All mathematics through analytic geometry and calculus.

Science.—Natural and physical sciences at elementary, high school, and college levels.

Social Studies.—High school and college history and social sciences.

The Humanities.—Languages, fine arts, literature at high school and college levels.

Technical-Vocational.—Agriculture, applied art, business and clerical, professional, semi-professional, and administrative, trade and industrial occupations at the high school and college levels.

This brief list merely suggests the wide range of courses offered by USAFI. In addition, several thousand high school and college courses are offered through USAFI by the extension departments of colleges and universities in agriculture, business, education, engineering, home economics, liberal arts, and technical-vocational areas. The offering is sufficient to enable an individual to obtain a high school education, to complete at least two years of college work, or to acquire knowledge of a vocation. It also enables an individual to become better prepared for a better assignment in service or to qualify educationally for a higher military rank.

Any person on active duty or a reservist or National Guardsman called to active duty for more than 120 days with the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard is eligible to enroll in a course. A fee of \$2.00 is charged for the first enrollment in USAFI courses but additional courses may be taken without a fee as long as progress is satisfactory. All texts and other instructional materials are furnished without cost to the student.

In order to meet the needs of service personnel and the problems of studying and learning in service, several methods of instruction are provided. Correspondence study is the method by which the student studies, using USAFI materials, and submits written assignments to oversea USAFIs or to USAFI Madison for correction and marking. The course is completed by taking a final End-of-Course Test. This is the most popular method of learning, approximately 65 percent to 70 percent of the personnel choosing it.

Another method is self-study. The student works by himself, using the same materials as in correspondence study but does not submit any written papers to USAFI. When he believes he

¹ Department of Defense, United States Armed Forces Institute, *Catalog of the United States Armed Forces Institute, Seventh Edition* (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954), pp. 195.

is prepared he applies for the final End-of-Course Test. About 25 percent to 30 percent of the enrollments are in self-study instruction.

Group-study is a method of instruction similar to class instruction in civilian schools and colleges. The groups are organized by direction of the commander of an installation who also selects and assigns the instructor. The students use USAFI texts and instructional materials and the instructor is provided with an Instructor's Course Outline prepared by USAFI. However, USAFI has no record of the personnel in group-study until they apply for the final End-of-Course Test. Approximately 10 percent to 15 percent of the personnel choose the group-study method of instruction.

The courses offered by the extension departments of colleges and universities are taught by correspondence-study. These should not be confused with USAFI courses for each institution is responsible for the development and instructional procedures for the courses it offers. The student selects the course he desires to take and the institution from which he wishes instruction. He enrolls through USAFI Madison, paying a fee covering cost of texts and other instructional materials but the government pays all other costs of instruction. His progress in the course and his final achievement are determined by the procedures used by the institution in which he enrolls.

The broad array of courses offered by USAFI on the elementary, secondary, and college levels and the variety in the methods of instruction used appear to provide in part for the diversity in educational status, maturity, needs, and interests of service personnel. Courses and types of instruction, however, are only a framework for learning. The character of the materials to be studied and the pro-

visions for stimulating and assisting the learner in his efforts to learn give substance to this framework. Consequently attention will be directed to these matters.

THE SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The procedures of USAFI Madison in developing courses and instructional materials are based on two principles. They must be appropriate for the maturity, educational level, needs, and interests of the personnel for whom they are designed. They must meet the needs of correspondence-study and self-study students who work without a teacher to guide their efforts and assist them when learning difficulties arise.

Proposals concerning the revision or deletion of courses in the current offering or the addition of new courses may come from USAFI, any one of the military departments, the Armed Forces Education Program Committee, and the Office of Armed Forces Education and Information. The Armed Forces Education Program Committee reviews the proposal and presents its recommendation to the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower and Personnel) for final approval.

The development of courses and instructional materials is in the hands of the Curriculum Division at USAFI Madison which is composed of competent civilian specialists in curriculum development and course of study construction. The Curriculum Division has the major though not the final responsibility for constructing courses, selecting texts, and preparing Study Guides for students and Instructor's Course Outlines for teachers of group-study. Since a serviceman's time for study is limited by his military duties, the courses are made as concise as is compatible with adequate presentation

of the materials and sound learning.

USAFI does not offer courses composed of the integration or synthesis of materials from several fields, such as literature and the social studies. Each course presents a specific subject and is constructed about the textbook selected for the subject. High school and college courses are acceptable for credit in civilian institutions, because they include the objectives, information, skills, principles, and understandings commonly found in civilian institutions.

In order to determine the need for improving, revising, or deleting courses or adding new courses, the Curriculum Division conducts a continuous survey of course offerings. The general basis for the survey is the demand for courses and the needs of service personnel. The usual practice is to rewrite unsatisfactory courses rather than revise them.

Since the textbook typically is the chief source of learning materials the criteria for its selection are of the greatest importance. It must be appropriate to the high school or college level of the course in which it is to be used. The content of the text must be of scholarly quality. It must also be organized and presented so that it is easily understood, following the principles of the psychology of learning. The textbook must be written in an interesting style and in clear, simple language. It must contain effective study aids and be appropriate to the maturity, educational level, and needs and interests of the persons for whom it is designed.

In order to provide for adults in the Armed Forces taking elementary school subjects, the textbooks for those courses are usually written by specialists in the Curriculum Division. Specialists in the field, working under the direction of the Curriculum Division, may be employed to prepare

specific materials.

The Curriculum Division of USAFI Madison is responsible for the preliminary study and recommendation of textbooks for high school and college courses. It maintains a master list of all textbooks approved or adopted by state school systems, high schools, colleges, and universities. It compiles data concerning the frequency of use of textbooks from the reports of sales by the American Textbook Publishers Institute and from a sample of school systems, colleges, and universities. It has also developed a score card for evaluating and rating textbooks.

Using the data from the master list of textbooks and the score, the Curriculum Division evaluates the textbooks for a course upon frequency of use, recency of the material, adaptability to correspondence study and self study courses, the scope, quality, scholarship, and interest of the content, freedom from subversive material, the adequacy, nature, and type of instructional aids, and similar important factors. From this evaluation it nominates three to five textbooks for further review by a panel of specialists in the subject of the course.

The panel consists of three persons selected from subject specialists nominated by professional associations. Its function is to evaluate the textbooks nominated for review and any others it may wish to consider, whether included in the master list or not. Each member of the panel is furnished with the general criteria for USAFI courses and the course specifications, the score card for evaluating textbooks. The panel recommends three textbooks to the Office of Armed Forces Information and Education, indicating the rank order ratings of the textbooks, together with the completed score card and any other data for each textbook.

The Office of Armed Forces Infor-

mation and Education is responsible for final review and endorsement of the textbook for a course. It grants authority for procurement of the textbook which is used by USAFI for its courses. The Armed Forces approve this text for group-study or propose an alternate.

In addition to these rather careful procedures for selecting textbooks, they are subject to review as a regular aspect of the continuous survey of courses. This review attempts to measure the value and usefulness of the textbooks to service personnel and may include special studies such as a study of the appropriateness of the reading level of textbooks for the grades for which they are intended to be used.

The facts presented in this review of the selection and development of instructional materials seem to indicate clearly that USAFI Madison is using sound procedures to develop courses and select texts adapted to the needs of students and appropriate for the types of instruction used. The continuous evaluation of courses and textbooks tends to make more certain their value and worth to service personnel.

PROVISIONS FOR STIMULATING AND AIDING LEARNING

The Armed Forces are responsible for administering the educational program of USAFI in the field. The performance of this function on an installation is the duty of an Information and Education officer, selected and assigned by the local commander. These officers are fully informed concerning the educational programs, services, and procedures of USAFI.

The Information and Education officer is responsible for promoting the educational program of USAFI. In discharging this responsibility he performs many activities or directs their performance by others. He publicizes the

courses offered and encourages men to enroll. He counsels a prospective student, helping him to plan an educational program and to select courses so he may attain his objectives. He assists him in enrolling and sees that he has the textbooks and other materials needed for studying any course he is taking. One of the most valuable services he performs is to answer students' questions, see that they make progress in their work, and encourage and assist them to continue until they complete the courses they are taking. In short, the Information and Education officer is probably the most important factor in stimulating learning and promoting completion of courses for he is the liaison between USAFI and the student.

Since the serviceman is dependent upon his own efforts in learning, USAFI Madison has provided a Study Guide for each course to help the student in studying and learning. Study Guides may be written by the author of the textbook used in a course, by USAFI personnel, or by a specialist in the subject employed for that purpose. All Study Guides are carefully reviewed by the Curriculum Division before publication.

The Study Guide will be rather fully described for it is the chief means by which USAFI attempts to stimulate and guide the students' study. It is designed to serve correspondence-study, self-study, and group-study students. All Study Guides follow the same pattern in their organization. The basic factor in the organization is the division of the content of the textbook for a course into topical units, usually following the order of the chapters of the textbook.

A Study Guide consists of two parts: an Introduction designed to help the student use the Study Guide effectively and the Units composed of

the procedures for assisting and guiding the students' study. The Introduction states the aims or purposes of the course, describes the materials needed for study, lists the units composing the course, and discusses the time needed to study a unit and to complete the assignments. It describes carefully the organization of the units in the second part of the Study Guide and the function of each part in the organization. The Introduction may provide a review of previous learning relating to the course being undertaken. In recent Study Guides for academic courses the Introduction suggests means by which a student may improve his study methods but this is omitted in Technical-Vocational courses.

The Units in the second part of the Study Guide are planned to guide a student's study. Each unit develops a specific topic in the course and all units follow the same organization. An overview, written so as to stimulate interest, presents the material to be learned and usually relates it to previous learning. The assignment consists of specific pages in the textbook and is followed by study notes designed to assist the student's study. The study notes follow the page order of the assignment, calling the students' attention to important concepts and principles and offering illustrations, explanations, and applications to help the student learn. Pictures, diagrams, and other visual aids are also used. The study notes endeavor to amplify, illustrate, and clarify the textbook material.

A self-examination to be taken by the student so he may test his learning appears at the close of each unit. Correct responses to the examination items are presented at the end of the Study Guide so a student may know his errors and restudy to correct them. In addition, each unit has a written as-

signment for correspondence-study students which is to be submitted to USAFI Madison for criticism and marking when a student has completed a unit. These written assignments are returned to students so they may improve their learning.

The policy of USAFI is to use the written assignments as a means of encouraging, motivating, and assisting the students to learn. They are processed rapidly so that little time elapses between a student's sending and receiving his written paper. The assignments are read by members of the extension division of the University of Wisconsin who are selected upon the basis of adequate preparation, successful teaching experience, and genuine interest in students. The readers are taught that their function is not merely to grade papers. Rather, they are to motivate, encourage, lead, and instruct. Hence they have developed the ability to make friendly, helpful, but specific comments upon papers so they may definitely contribute to stimulating and aiding students to learn.

The group-study sections have posed certain instructional problems. Instructors of group-study are not always well qualified teachers because there is a shortage of such persons in the Armed Forces as there is in civilian life. Since group study sections are scattered over a major part of the globe, a need has been felt for some definition of the content of each course. Consequently USAFI has prepared an Instructors Course Outline for each course to assist the teachers in performing their functions. These Course Outlines contain suggestions concerning the content and organization of each course and also concerning the objective of the course, methods of instruction, supplementary materials, teaching aids, and means for evaluating to students' achievements. The Instruc-

tor's Course Outline is a practical guide which should be helpful to all teachers, especially to those who are inexperienced.

USAFI and the Armed Forces have developed a useful program for helping students to study and to learn. The study guide offers the student who must depend on his own resources a very helpful means for guiding his study. The Instructor's Course Outline performs the same service for instructors of group-study students. It seems probable, however, that the personal contacts of the Information and Education Officer, the help he offers students, and comments made by the readers on the written assignments of students are the most potent factor in encouraging and aiding the learning of servicemen.

THE MEASUREMENT OF ACHIEVEMENT

USAFI uses three types of objective tests to measure the educational accomplishments of service personnel: the End-of-Course Tests, the Tests of General Educational Development, and the USAFI Subject Examinations. These tests are of interest both to civilians and service personnel for the scores made on them may be used to improve an individual's status in service, to aid in getting employment after discharge, or to obtain credit in civilian high schools or colleges. It must be emphasized that USAFI neither grants nor recommends credit. The determination of credit is a function exercised solely by educational institutions.

As the name suggests, End-of-Course Tests are the final examinations for USAFI courses. Each test is based upon the textbook for a specific course and is administered when the student applies for the test at the end of the course. All End-of-Course Tests are objective except those for twelve

correspondence-study courses which can not be measured objectively, such as a course in art. Satisfactory completion of a course is evidenced by a grade of 70 or better on a scale of 0-100.

End-of-Course Tests are constructed by specialists on the Examinations Staff of the University of Chicago. The objectives used in developing a course and the textbook used in the course are the basis upon which an End-of-Course Test is constructed. The tests are designed to measure the information, basic skills, understanding and application of principles, and appreciation taught in the course. End-of-Course Tests are verified by experienced teachers in the subject-matter area before submission to USAFI Madison.

The General Educational Development Tests are designed to measure the educational status attained by an individual as a result of all his educational experiences in formal schooling and in informal education outside school. Both high school and college forms of these tests are available. Both forms are composed of a battery of sub-tests in the fields of expression (communication), social studies, natural sciences, and literary materials. The high school form has an additional sub-test in general mathematical ability. As the title and the sub-tests suggest, these tests tend to measure the level of general education attained by an individual rather than his competency in a specific field. Both the high school and college tests are standardized upon the basis of the performance of students at each level.

The USAFI Subject Examinations are constructed to measure the achievement of an individual in a high school or college subject regardless of the source of his learning. They are especially valuable to the person who thinks he knows enough to pass an examination in a subject for which he

has neither high school nor college credit. These examinations are standardized on both high school and college levels.

The general approval which educators and the public have extended to this testing program seems justified for several reasons. The use of objective tests avoids bias or prejudice in scoring. The quality and soundness of the tests seem assured by the fact that they are constructed by highly qualified experts to measure the objectives the course was designed to attain. The development of tests designed to measure learning wherever it may have been obtained is definitely a forward step for it offers individuals who may have been denied or dropped from formal schooling the opportunity to prove their educational competency. Finally, the test scores are of great value to the servicemen for they may be used for advancement in military rank, to obtain high school or college credit, or to secure a job after discharge.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF USAFI TESTS

Certain definite principles underlie the sound administration of a testing program. The tests must be offered under conditions such that each person may make his maximum score. Safeguards must be provided so that no person receives improper assistance in taking the tests. Complete security of the tests must be maintained so that copies are not available for coaching for the tests. Since USAFI tests are offered in military installations throughout the world, it is important to review the facts concerning their administration.

The physical facilities available for testing are normally good. The rooms usually are sufficiently large to provide for the number being tested. Light, heat, and ventilation are satisfactory.

With few exceptions, where standard arm-table chairs are used, tables are provided which have adequate space for the test and answer sheet.

The testing personnel in all military centers consists of one or more competent, well qualified persons interested in furthering the testing program. Counselors are present in practically all centers to advise and assist servicemen in preparing for tests and to encourage them so they may achieve successfully. Normally, provision is made so tests may be taken either during the day or in the evening.

USAFI tests carrying recommendations for credit are marked "Controlled Item (USAFI Test Material)" and are carefully protected against compromise or loss by a stringent handling procedure. The tests are stored in safes or under lock and key, usually in the testing center. Proctors are always present when tests are being taken to guard against cheating. Verification of identity is required in most centers before a test is taken and every effort is made to prevent copying the tests and to collect all test material before the examinees leave the room. In a majority of centers the proctors perform other duties while engaged in proctoring but they apparently perform their duties as proctors effectively.

It must be recognized that the conditions surrounding the administration of the tests are not always ideal in either civilian institutions or in the Armed Forces. It seems apparent, however, that the procedures used in the Armed Forces tend to conform to the criteria for sound administration of the tests. The conditions under which the tests are offered are designed to enable each person to achieve his best scores on them. The provisions seem fairly adequate for insuring that the performance of each individual upon a test is his own. They would be im-

proved by always verifying the identity of the examinees and providing that the proctors should engage in no other duties during the testing period. The procedures for handling and storing test materials seem adequate to provide for their security.

Since the major purpose in maintaining security measures for the tests is to prevent coaching to improve scores, it seems appropriate to report a study by Jones¹ on the effects of retesting and coaching on the high school level Tests of General Educational Development. The population of this study were non-high school graduates, some of whom only retook the tests while others either studied or were tutored on the test forms. Jones's findings were that gains in test scores were so slight as to be negligible. He concludes, "Short of having men actually study the answer keys, it seems unlikely they will enjoy great benefit from retesting."

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The United States Armed Forces Institute is a unique institution in military history. Never before has a nation attempted to offer men and women in its Armed Forces an opportunity to continue education while in service. USAFI has faced the task of developing an educational program appropriate to the diverse needs and interests of service personnel and adapted to the conditions surrounding study and learning in service. That this task has been done well is shown by the description of the educational program of USAFI in the preceding pages. Probably the best evidence of the quality of this program is the value and usefulness of the courses to the persons taking them.

¹ R. Stewart Jones, "Do Retesting and Coaching Influence G.E.D. Test Scores?", *The School Review*, LXII (September, 1954), pp. 333-40.

The fact that more than 3,000,000 service personnel have enrolled in USAFI courses suggests that they believe the courses are of value to them. The annual enrollment tends to approximate 500,000 or more. There is no evidence of decline in enrollment, for during the first nine months of 1954 there were over 307,800 active enrollments in USAFI courses.

Servicemen may enroll in the courses for various reasons; but regardless of the reason, Charters¹ found that 69 percent of the enrollees found USAFI courses useful in improving their status in service. These uses extended from acquiring general background or knowledge which could be applied in military activities to qualifying for a specific military job, a service school, or obtaining a promotion or a commission.

A considerable proportion of service personnel take USAFI courses for personal reasons, such as broadening their knowledge or acquiring skill in a particular area. Many of this group enroll in courses in general education to improve their educational background or widen their intellectual horizons. Others enroll in technical-vocational courses to acquire knowledge and skill they desire for personal reasons, not to enter a vocation.

The majority of servicemen enroll in USAFI courses to complete or continue civilian education. Since USAFI does not award nor recommend credit for its courses, the Commission on Accreditation of Services Experiences of the American Council on Education has developed test norms for these courses which may be accepted by civilian schools. The state departments of education in forty-six states have recommended that high schools grant credit toward a diploma for successful completion of USAFI courses and the high

¹ Charters, *op. cit.*, pp. 22-23.

schools in the other two states may do so. Some states and/or high schools have developed their own norms for credit and may have other specific requirements.

Scores on the Tests of General Educational Development have also been approved by all but three states as a basis for awarding a high school diploma or a certificate of equivalency. The majority of colleges and universities have accepted scores upon these tests for admission to college. Many of the states and higher institutions, however, have required higher minimum scores on these tests than those suggested by the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences of the American Council on Education.

During the years 1946-1954 inclusive, USAFI Madison has sent 584,479 reports of the achievements of servicemen and veterans upon its courses and tests to civilian institutions. Although such evidence may not have been accepted by all of the local institutions, the fact remains that USAFI courses and tests have enabled thousands of veterans to complete high school and/or to enter college.

Studies of the success of veterans in further civilian education would furnish additional evidence of the effectiveness of the educational program of USAFI. Unfortunately, few sound studies of this type have been made. It is difficult to generalize from those available because of differences in institutions, entrance requirements, measures of success, and other factors. In some colleges students admitted on the basis of the Tests of Educational Development did as well or better than those admitted as normal high school graduates. In other colleges the reverse was true. The soundest conclusion seems to be that a substantial proportion of those admitted upon

these tests were successful in college. This is all that may be said of the normal college entrants, for it is well known that only a minority of those entering college graduate.

Although USAFI Madison has sent many thousands of reports of USAFI courses and tests taken by veterans to industrial, commercial, and governmental institutions, almost no studies have been made of their success as compared to those who entered employment from civilian schools and colleges. The limited evidence available seems to indicate that veterans who obtained civilian employment upon the basis of the Tests of General Educational Development have performed as well as normal high school graduates in the same employment.

This review of the values and uses which the educational program of USAFI has for the serviceman seems to testify to the effectiveness of the program. It does not seem probable that the enrollment in courses would be maintained year after year if the serviceman found no value in them. Regardless of the reason for enrolling, the great majority of servicemen find that the courses do contribute to improving their military activities and their military status. The courses and the tests provide a means by which the individual may complete high school education, enter college, or gain civilian employment. The studies available indicate that the person who enters college or industry upon the basis of USAFI tests does as well as the individual who has finished a high School program. USAFI has developed an educational program which will contribute to the progress of an individual while in service and provide him with knowledge, skills, and abilities useful in post-service life.

Organizational Practices in Student-Faculty Counseling Programs in Small Colleges

DURING THE PAST several decades two rather distinct and somewhat opposing points of view have evolved regarding the role of the college faculty member in student counseling. However, it has become clear within the last few years that a working compromise is necessary, and that this compromise is readily attainable.

With the advent of increasing emphasis upon personnel services in higher education came the notion that these personnel services, and here we are speaking particularly of the counseling function, could be assumed only by a personnel specialist. The other point of view, of course, is that every professor is and should be a counselor.

The need for resolving these points of view stems from the present-day philosophy that the educational efforts of an institution of higher learning are most effective when the goal of these educational efforts is the "whole student." And this philosophy necessarily involves the entire faculty of a college in activities of both an academic and personnel nature. A recent pronouncement of this philosophy appears in the American Council on Education publication, *Teacher as Counselor*, published in 1948.

Recently, Coe College undertook to fulfill this need more effectively by reorganizing its student-faculty program. In the process of this reorganiza-

tion, it was felt that additional information was needed about current trends in organizational structure of student-faculty counselor programs in other colleges of comparable size and character. Such information was obtained through a questionnaire mailed to about thirty selected colleges.

THE PROBLEM

The primary objective of the questionnaire was to investigate the existing organizational procedures in programs of student-faculty advisement and counseling. It was hoped that a pattern might become evident which would prove of value to those institutions concerned with improvement and reorganization in this area.

THE RESULTS

One of the most extensive variations occurs in the responses to the question of who directs and supervises the student-faculty counseling program. About a fifth of the colleges retain the responsibility under the Dean of the College. Another fifth indicated that the Dean of the College and one of several other members of faculty or administration carry the responsibility.

Two-fifths of the respondents have a counseling organization headed by a dean of students, a dean of men and women, or some committee consisting primarily of student personnel people.

The directors of the counseling program in some of the other institutions include the registrar, the director of vocational services, the college president, and chairman of the Department of Education.

The next question concerned itself with the problem of who on the faculty and administration serves in the capacity of a counselor. In over one-half of the colleges, the departmental chairman acts as adviser and counselor to students majoring in that department. In other schools these duties were divided among the several members of a department.

In the counseling of other students, two ideas seem to predominate. First, there is a tendency to distinguish between the counseling of underclassmen (freshmen and sophomores) and the upperclass students. Over one-half the colleges indicated this practice. Second, there is a definite desire to select the faculty members who will constitute the counselors for the freshmen and sophomores. This is particularly true regarding the freshmen, since in several instances sophomores are permitted to select their own adviser.

In about one-fourth of the colleges it is the practice to include all members of the faculty as counselors. Even where this is done the inclination appears to be to reduce the number of advisees assigned to certain members of the faculty while, at the same time, to give a larger number to others.

Several responses indicated that new faculty members receive no advisees during their first year. The reasoning here is quite obvious—the new faculty member is making numerous other adjustments, and until he becomes oriented to the general tone of the campus, his participation in advisement and counseling should be held at a minimum.

A number of the colleges have either begun or are continuing a plan of having upperclass students assume some of the freshman counseling duties. One college in particular employs upperclass students in its residence halls as additional personnel for effective counseling. Under the supervision of a trained personnel worker the students can probably make a more substantial contribution here than they can in the area of academic or vocational advisement.

The idea has frequently been expressed that the effectiveness of a student-faculty counseling program can be increased by reducing the number of counselees. The number of advisees as reported in this investigation varied from ten to forty per faculty member, with twenty as the average number. Only a subjective evaluation was asked for on the questionnaire, and these evaluations do not appear to relate effectiveness of the program with a decreasing number of advisees.

Another problem which has been cited as affecting the success of a program has been the remuneration or other special considerations which were given to those faculty members selected as advisers or counselors. Only one institution responding to the questionnaire has a policy of financial reimbursement to faculty counselors. In another college, effectiveness of counseling, considered in a broad sense, is used as a criterion for promotion and salary increase. Of those indicating no special considerations, several stated the principle that "good counseling and advisement—maximum and effective attention to the individual constitute essentials of good teaching."

What about in-service training for faculty counselors? Is any effort made to bring about continuing improvement in the counseling by faculty

members? The answers to these questions grouped themselves as follows:

About one-third indicated having a rather continuous program of in-service improvement consisting mainly of periodic meetings with the director.

Almost one-half of the replies indicated no program of orientation or training for the faculty advisers, while about a third have a limited orientation meeting in the fall of each year.

Incidentally, in only one instance in which organized faculty orientation was not reported was the responding college able to label its program as successful. Successful or "improving" programs were reported in all of the institutions having some in-service training. Also, all of those colleges reporting a successful or satisfactory program had prepared a manual for their faculty advisers. However, slightly less than one-third of the colleges have such manuals.

The request for a subjective evaluation of the program brought the most varied and frank comments. Only one-third of the respondents felt that their respective programs could be labeled "successful"; another third, that they were relatively successful; while over a half felt that they were not at all successful or were in need of considerable improvement.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of current practices and thinking regarding student-faculty counseling programs in small colleges the following points may be noted:

1. There appears to be a definite place and need for an effectively organized student-faculty counseling program. This program, in its structure, is both centralized and decentralized. In other words, there is at the core of the program a well staffed and adequately trained personnel staff. This central core is then supplemented by members of the faculty through a personnel, rather than an academic, relationship.

2. The college professor can function effectively in a number of counseling areas, as follows:

- a. *New Student Week.*—The advice-giving responsibility of a faculty member in registration is extended and made more effective through his initial contacts with new students before classes begin and even before registration. The personnel office should prepare personal summaries and test results for use by faculty members being utilized as counselors.

- b. *Academic achievement.*—From experience and various research studies we are aware of the role which effective and systematic study procedures play in academic success or failure of college students. The faculty counselor not only has the opportunity to identify, first hand, cases of poor study procedures, but has the means of guiding the student in acquiring more effective study in specific subject areas.

- c. *Reading problems.*—Again, it is the instructor who most readily becomes aware of reading problems. Here follow-up on the part of the faculty member is a referral to a member of the personnel staff or reading skills laboratory.

- d. *Coordination with dormitory personnel staff in identifying and resolving campus adjustment problems.*—This type of problem generally manifests itself to a greater extent in the classroom or related work than in dormitory activity. Furthermore, with a faculty-personnel staff counseling organization, the effectiveness of this coordination is increased significantly.

- e. *Referrals.*—Awareness and subsequent referral by the faculty counselor is also possible in a number of other areas, namely, financial, personal problems of social adjustment, class absences for health or other reasons, dormitory problems, and additional testing and test interpretation.

- f. *Occupational counseling and placement.*—In this area the faculty-personnel staff counseling organization makes effective use of the vocational and professional competencies and acquaintances of the faculty. This is definitely a rich source of assistance in placement as well as in continued counseling.

3. Institutional recognition of the counseling function is increasing, but rather slowly. In all probability the most desirable area of tangible recognition is in terms of a decrease in teaching load. Faculty members have expressed the opinion that where their time is already limited, extra financial remuneration will not create or free time for counseling.

A related problem is whether all faculty members should be utilized in a counseling capacity or whether the faculty counselors should be selected. The consensus of the respondents seems to be that a selective process ought to be operative, but at the same time emphasis should be placed upon the view that counseling is an integral part of the educative process and there-

fore is the responsibility of every faculty member.

4. Supervision and direction of the total counseling program appears to be the responsibility of a variety of college administrators. The tendency, however, seems to be in the direction of centralizing the function with a member of the personnel staff while the over-all responsibility rests with a committee or is coordinated with the college or faculty dean.

Finally, it was evident from the tone of the responses to the questionnaire that the responsibility of the college in the area of student counseling and the significant contribution which faculty can make is being recognized more and more extensively.

Changing Concepts in Evaluation

THE THEORY of evaluation is not new, but the application of a scientific method for measuring the degree of attainment of major educational objectives is relatively recent. The traditional system of testing primarily measures the students' acquisition of information—with little or no emphasis on other objectives. The purpose of the newer theory is to focus attention upon what has apparently been neglected in the past, the students' ability to think independently of particular data. In this approach to evaluation theory, the writer is very much indebted to the North Central Association Workshop Studies in Liberal Education held at the University of Chicago, of which he attended three. The ideas developed in this paper are the outcome of these workshop sessions.

Evaluation is essentially the process of determining the extent to which educational objectives are actually being realized by a program of curriculum and instruction. Since educational objectives are translated in terms of changes in human behavior, the ways in which we think, feel, and act, then evaluation is the process for determining the degree to which these changes are actually taking place. Evaluation involves getting evidence about the degree and level of behavioral changes in students, thus any valid evidence about these behaviors provides an appropriate method of evaluation. The common assumption that evaluation is synonymous with a great variety of paper and pencil tests is misleading since they are certainly inadequate to

describe the whole process of educational growth. In many instances where large groups of students must be tested in a relatively short time the written test is simply the most economical means of measuring presumed changes in students for the purpose of assigning a grade.

The nature of educational goals is one of constant change in which concepts are constantly being clarified, modified, and revalued as new evidence appears during the process of inquiry. Evaluation instruments can contribute to educational growth by detecting evidence of weaknesses in the structure. Quite frequently a college may find, for example, that one or more of its objectives are inconsistent with the basic philosophy of the college or that some objectives are too vague to guide the learning experiences of the student and, in these instances and others of like fashion, scientific measuring instruments can help clarify these weaknesses. Evaluation procedures can be developed to study various kinds of students, the concrete vs. the abstract thinker, the creative vs. the stereotyped student, and the successful vs. the unsuccessful student. Various tests can be devised to analyze and point out such interests, weaknesses and strengths to the student and the appropriate counselor in order to help the student discover what adjustments might have to be made in his learning experiences. For example, an extremely stereotyped student's capacity for critical inquiry in the social sciences is quite frequently blocked by

his own stereotyping and if he can be shown in what areas of learning he is more likely to fail, he can avoid a possible serious frustration. The development of adequate testing devices is, however, not the end purpose of evaluation theory. A good testing device is simply a means or an instrument with which to check the validity of educational philosophies, objectives, hypotheses, and assumptions in a constant search for a more dynamic educational experience for the student and the instructor.

Evaluation, then, means identifying a great variety of changes in the behavior of the student. Hence, personal judgements as to the capacity and ability of the student should be based upon a uniformity of objective evidence of behavioral change. The student ought not be "at the mercy of the instructor" in the final evaluation of the student's success or failure. The professor need not assume the position of lawgiver and judge, but seek to guide the student in his learning experiences.

In order to develop a meaningful philosophy of education it is imperative that a college clearly state the objectives of its program. The evaluation of the ends of education—desirable changes in the behavior of students—cannot be given concrete meaning in the absence of an explicit purpose. There should be evidence to clarify the success or failure of the educational goals if any significant measure of healthy growth in the direction of positive change is to have any real meaning. Educational objectives are consciously willed and derived from those i.e., the faculty as a group or possibly the heads of departments, who formulate them; thus it becomes evident that objectives may vary greatly among colleges. The major problem in clarifying objectives is to avoid static, mean-

ingless expressions in which no one (especially those individuals who formulate them) is clear as to precisely what meaning is to be assumed.

A pragmatic concept of education views learning as a changing process in which the student is expected to change in behavior in terms of his habits, feelings, attitudes, and thinking. The student's organized learning experiences provided by the college focus attention on a vital problem. The instructor who plays what Cantor has called "verbal ping-pong" in the classroom illustrates the need for more genuine student participation in the learning process. The objectives ought to be involved in the learning experiences of the student in such a way that his learning is consistently identified with the objectives.

It is possible to study evaluation instruments only after the objectives have been identified, precisely stated, and situations indicated which afford an opportunity for the expression of the particular behavior implied in the objectives. The purpose of any educational evaluation is to present evidence that the kinds of goals sought are actually being realized. This aspect of the problem is given concrete meaning in terms of identifiable changes in the behavior of the student. These changes operate in two dimensions, (1) the behavioral and (2) the content areas, and the problem is to clarify the changes that are expected to occur as a result of the learning experiences of the student in a given field of content. Thus a statement of objectives clear enough to be used in guiding the selection of learning experiences and in planning instruction will indicate both the kind and level of behavior to be developed in the student and the area of content or of life in which the behavior is to be applied.

The very act of clarifying objectives

leads to a more concrete understanding of the behavioral changes that are desired and suggests possibilities for evaluation instruments that can measure the kind and degree of behavioral change. A comprehensive written examination is usually the most economical evaluation device for determining the students' grades since hundreds of students can be objectively tested in three or four hours. The validity of any evaluation instrument may be checked against the following criteria:

The test situation focuses sharply on the behaviors desired.

The test situation evokes the behavior.

The test situation affords sufficient opportunity for the student to display the behavior implied in the appropriate objective.

In constructing a written test the examiner can greatly facilitate the work by carefully selecting from numerous possible test situations only those that are practical and sufficiently objective. Many test situations that might meet the three criteria above would be clearly too impractical or subjective, i.e., students would be required to make a trip to a distant city to view stationary art works, or would personally have to report on the ways in which a certain course or sequence of studies has helped them to become better citizens. One of the major weaknesses of college examinations is that there is too much emphasis upon information as an end in itself. There is a glaring poverty of evidence, as indicated by these examinations, that students are acquiring ability in analysis, synthesis, and application. Surely these behaviors are significant and ought to be evaluated. Some college faculties fail altogether to find a means of evaluating the attainment of these objectives and shift to more tangible evidence, i.e., informative knowledge. It is a relatively simple matter to test

knowledge of basic content, but increasingly difficult to test the higher levels of analysis, synthesis, and application. It is easy, however, to "kid yourself" into assuming that because you have constructed elaborate testing devices that you are getting valid evidence of the achievement of the higher levels of behavioral change. If, then, a college considers an objective important, an effort should be made to get valid evidence of the attainment of that goal.

Education in our day no longer emphasizes mere compilation of data but is primarily concerned with influencing desirable changes in behavior as a result of acquiring knowledge. Although some colleges have yet to feel the effects of the reorientation and a few have as yet been only partially affected, there can be no doubt that a very significant reform is being effected with our growing knowledge of the psychology of learning. The "quiz kid" stereotype as a criterion for successful learning is rapidly losing status, because educators are now clarifying the distinction between means and ends in education. The nature of a sound educational enterprise is one of constant inquiry. Recent developments in educational research have reversed the older static notions of the psychology of learning, a reversal which was a corollary of similar revaluations in other twentieth century phenomena. Modern theories of learning and evaluation view education as a dynamic process in which factual knowledge is only part of a foundation upon which a more complex structure is built. An awareness of the significant role that evaluation can play in the development of education on higher levels is one of the great educational problems of our time.

The Role of Disciplinary Action in Higher Education

THE PROBLEM

DESPITE THE PERSISTENCE of disciplinary problems in American colleges there is a paucity of material in the current literature to indicate the specific nature and extent of the problem, the procedures followed in dealing with deviant behavior in its varied forms, or the effectiveness of such procedures in the remediation or prevention of aberrations from established norms (1, p. 1330). As a part of a broad survey of institutional activities Gardner, in 1936 (3), and Haggerty and Brumbaugh two years later (4), reported specific information relative to disciplinary procedures among the institutions of the North Central Association. Although Foley (2) and Williamson and Foley (6) published quantitative summaries of the activities of the Disciplinary Counseling Office of the University of Minnesota several years ago, no general survey of institutional procedures in this problem area has been reported during the past fifteen years.

During the spring and summer of 1952 an exploratory survey of disciplinary procedures among the 312 senior institutions of the North Central Association as of July, 1951, was made. This is a summary report of that study. Assuming the fact of individual differences, the wholeness of the personality, the need to begin the educational process at the point attained by the student when the college assumes responsibility for guiding his subsequent development, and the symptomatic

nature of behavioral deviations (7, Ch. 1), it is the purpose of this paper to report the evidence thus obtained with reference to the following issues:

1. The role of disciplinary action in the educational programs of the institutions concerned; i.e., whether "constructive" or punitive in purpose;

2. The nature and extent of student deviation from institutional standards during a specific academic year (1950-51);

3. Methods used in dealing with disciplinary situations—for correction or remediation on the one hand, and for preventing such situations from arising on the other;

4. Observed differences in institutional philosophy; in the nature and extent of deviation; and in the procedures or practices followed—in each case considered in relation to (a) size of institution, (b) source of control and support (public or private), and (c) type of organization (college or university);

5. Any changes in trend during the past fifteen years, where valid comparisons and contrasts can be made between the data gathered here and the studies of Gardner and his associates and of Haggerty and Brumbaugh.

PROCEDURE

Two basic concepts have guided this study: *disciplinary action*, conceived as action resulting from academic deficiencies as well as infractions of rules or violations of social codes; and *disciplinary situation*, conceived as a

TABLE I

RESPONSES OF 218 COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON DISCIPLINARY PROCEDURES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SIZE, SOURCE OF CONTROL AND SUPPORT AND TYPE OF ORGANIZATION, WITH NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES

	Num- ber	Per- cent
<i>Size:</i>		
Under 1,000.....	115	53
1,000-2,999.....	64	29
3,000-9,999.....	25	12
10,000 and over.....	14	6
Total.....	218	100
<i>Source of Control and Support:</i>		
Private.....	127	59
Public.....	91	41
Total.....	218	100
<i>Type of Organization:</i>		
College.....	172	79
University.....	46	21
Total.....	218	100

learning situation in which diagnosis is made and treatment prescribed in terms of the interaction of the individual and his social and cultural environment, and involving elements of past, present and future (6, Ch. 5).

Three major types of disciplinary situations, approximating those reported by Gardner and by Haggerty and Brumbaugh, constitute the bases of analysis of the data:

1. Scholastic probation or failure;
2. Academic irregularity—cheating, falsifying records, etc.;
3. Social misconduct—minor misconduct (violation of residence rules), misuse of privileges (automobile, library), sex misconduct, financial irregularity or theft, disorderly conduct, and other.

The population.—The population has been described in terms of (a) size of institution, according to 1950-51 en-

rollment; (b) source of control and support, public or private; and (c) type of organization, college or university.

The sample.—The sample consists of a sample of a sample obtained by the following method: To each of the 274 institutions responding to a preliminary questionnaire addressed to each of the 312 members of the North Central Association (88 percent) was sent the Questionnaire on Disciplinary Procedures. Data obtained from the 218 questionnaires returned (70 percent) constitute the materials upon which this study is based.

Since the sample has been selected by the random method it is assumed that it meets the test of randomness; and in terms of the three above-named characteristics, it may be considered representative of the population from which it has been drawn. The existence of possible bias in the sample has been tested in terms of the relative proportions of responses from the original mailing and the combined results of the second and third follow-up cards. No significant differences were found.

The questionnaire.—The questionnaire consists of eleven items drawn from the literature on disciplinary procedures and the general literature on college personnel work, designed to yield information relative to the following:

1. The philosophy of institutional purpose in disciplinary action;
2. The nature and extent of deviation from institutional standards, according to the three categories of disciplinary situations;
3. Institutional procedures developed to deal with each of the three categories of deviant behavior by means of (a) correction or remediation through treatment or punishment, and by means of (b) prevention, through specific policies relative to rules and regulations, and through any

TABLE II

RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE THE PURPOSE OF INSTITUTIONAL ACTION IN DISCIPLINARY SITUATIONS?" CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO MAJOR CONCERN EXPRESSED WITH SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CATEGORIES INDICATED

Major concern for the student.....				30 Percent
Under 1,000.....	No.	Percent	Difference	
1,000 and over.....	115	23		
Major concern for the institution.....	103	37	14†	8 Percent
Concern for both student and institution.....				26 Percent
Under 1,000.....	No.	Percent	Difference	
1,000 and over.....	115	33	16*	
No response.....	103	17		36
			Total	100

* Significant at the 1 percent level of confidence.

† Significant at the 2 percent level of confidence.

methods considered—on the basis of institutional experience—to be practicable and effective means of preventing disciplinary situations from arising.

Since the questionnaire was to be sent to experienced personnel officers the items were not pretested.

RESULTS

The responses to each of the eleven questionnaire items were tabulated in percentages according to the institutional categories and subcategories given in Table I, with numbers and percentages.

Percentage differences among institutions according to the categories and subcategories were noted, and the significance of each was tested by application of Wilks' formulas (5) for confidence limits and critical differences between percentages. Observed differences at the 1 percent (*), 2 percent (†) and 5 percent (§) levels of confidence were recorded. Some of the findings of the study are summarized below.

I. Philosophy of Institutional Purpose in Disciplinary Action

The results of the responses to the open-end question, "What do you consider to be the purpose of institutional

action in disciplinary situations?" are summarized in Table II. More than a third of the sample, it may be observed, failed to respond to the question. Among those who did indicate the purpose of their institutions in taking disciplinary action, however, the great majority of the 64 percent who responded (all but 8 percent) expressed specific concern for the welfare of the individual student.

The most significant difference in philosophy between institutions, according to the three subcategories, appears to be related to size: those with enrollments of 1,000 and over expressing major concern for the welfare of the student, and the smaller institutions expressing equal concern for the student on the one hand and the institution on the other.

Although Haggerty and Brumbaugh (4, p. 214) reported an almost unanimous acceptance of the specific proposition that discipline was considered to be a means for the "mental and moral training of students," they actually found little relationship between purpose and method of achieving it. Gardner, however, reported that only 44 percent of the institutions in the group he studied (as contrasted with 56 percent in this study) gave

TABLE III

RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "DO YOU MAINTAIN RECORDS OF DISCIPLINARY SITUATIONS . . . ?," CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO (1) MAINTENANCE OR NON-MAINTENANCE OF RECORDS AND (2) TYPES OF DISCIPLINARY SITUATIONS REPORTED, WITH SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES AMONG INSTITUTIONAL CATEGORIES INDICATED

1. Institutional Records of Disciplinary Action

Records maintained.....	79 Percent
No data or explanation given.....	9 Percent
Data unavailable.....	10 Percent
Details reported.....	60 Percent
No records maintained.....	17 Percent
No response.....	4 Percent

Total 100

2. Differences between institutional categories

a. On the basis of maintenance or non-maintenance of records

Records maintained	No.	Percent	Difference
Under 10,000.....	204	78	
10,000 and over.....	14	93	15†
No records maintained			
Under 10,000.....	204	17	17*
10,000 and over.....	14	0	

b. On the basis of percentage differences in rates per 1,000 students enrolled, for each type of disciplinary situation

Academic irregularity

0.0-0.9

Source of control and support

Private.....	47	30	
Public.....	40	58	28*
Type of organization			
College.....	72	36	
University.....	15	74	38*

4.0-4.9

Size of institution

Under 1,000.....	46	17	12‡
1,000 and over.....	0	5	
Type of organization			
College.....	72	14	14‡
University.....	15	0	

Social Misconduct

0.0-9.9

Size of institution

Under 1,000.....	59	27	17‡
1,000 and over.....	54	44	
Type of organization			
College.....	94	30	
University.....	19	63	33*

20.0-29.9

College.....	94	17	17*
University.....	19	0	

30.0 and over

Under 1,000.....	59	32	14*
1,000 and over.....	54	18	

Total Number of Students Involved

150.0 and over

Size of institution			
Under 1,000.....	50	12	12*
1,000 and over.....	35	0	
Type of organization			
College.....	76	8	8†
University.....	9	0	

* Significant at the 1 percent level of confidence.

† Significant at the 2 percent level of confidence.

‡ Significant at the 5 percent level of confidence.

evidence of a "constructive" attitude toward students in dealing with deviations from behavior norms (3, p. 192-4).

II. The Nature and Extent of Deviation from College Standards

In order to obtain quantitative information relative to student deviation from institutional standards the following question was asked: "Do you maintain records of disciplinary situations? If so, how many such situations, in each of the following categories, occurred during the year 1950-51: (a) scholastic probation or failure, (b) academic irregularity, (c) social misconduct? What is the total number of students involved?" The responses, together with significant differences between institutional categories, are summarized in Table III.

Although 79 percent of the responding institutions reported that records of disciplinary situations were kept, only 60 percent supplied numerical data relative to one or more of the problem areas, and only 40 percent returned information for each of the three areas, together with the total number of students involved during the year 1950-51.

Significant differences between institutions in the maintenance of records were observed on the basis of size. These indicated that those of 10,000 and over tended to report that such records were kept.

No significant differences among the institutional categories in percentages reporting the various rates of *academic deficiency* were observed. In the case of *academic irregularity*, on the other hand, the institution under public control, or with the university type of organization, tends to show the lowest rate of deviation (0.0-0.9 per 1,000 enrollment), whereas the institution under 1,000, or with the collegiate type of organization, tends to report

the highest rate of deviation (4.0-4.9 per 1,000 enrollment).

In the case of *social misconduct*, the institution of 1,000 and over, or with the university type of organization, tends to report the lowest rates (0.0-9.9 per 1,000 enrolled), whereas the college, or the small institution, tends to report the highest deviation rates (20.0 and over per 1,000 enrolled). Likewise the college, or the institution of under 1,000 tends to report the highest rates for the total number of students involved (150.0 and over per 1,000 enrolled).

III. Institutional Procedures Utilized in Disciplinary Situations

Information relative to two general types of procedures used in dealing with deviant behavior was obtained—*corrective or remedial* procedures and *preventive* procedures.

a. Corrective or Remedial Procedures

Respondents were requested to indicate whether or not ten generally-used methods were utilized in dealing with deviations from standards in each of the three problem areas, and also the nature and extent of the counseling services provided for students.

Ten generally-used procedures.—Responses to the question concerning the use of the ten procedures (warning, reprimand, restriction of freedom, academic probation, disciplinary probation, lowered grades or credits, suspension, dismissal with readmission privilege, permanent dismissal, interview) indicated that the two methods most favored were *warning* and *personal interview*, both of which suggest concern for the individual student. Also, significant differences among the three institutional categories indicated that:

1. The large, public or university type of institution tends to use *suspension* and *dismissal-readmission privilege* in the case of all three types

of deviant behavior, and *disciplinary probation* in dealing with academic irregularity and social misconduct.

2. The small, private, or collegiate type of institution tends to favor *warning* and *restriction of freedom* in cases of both academic deficiency and academic irregularity—and *permanent dismissal* in cases of either academic deficiency or social misconduct.

3. The small institution shows a more marked tendency to use the personal interview in dealing with academic problems; the large, in dealing with cases of social misconduct.

In general then, the findings of this study suggest that the large, public, university type of institution tends toward more severe methods of dealing with deviants according to all three types of standards, but stops short of permanent withdrawal of educational privileges from them. Although the small, private, collegiate type of institution uses less severe methods in dealing with deviants it tends more frequently toward permanent dismissal.

A comparison of our findings with those of Haggerty and Brumbaugh (4, p. 215), in terms of percentages of institutions checking the several methods, yielded the following similarities and differences:

1. Approximately the same percentages used the methods of *academic probation*, *dismissal* for social misconduct, and *personal conference* in cases of academic problems.

2. Several marked differences were apparent: *restriction of freedom* is used less frequently at present in dealing with academic problems, and more in cases of social misconduct; *probation* is used more frequently in cases of academic problems, and considerably more frequently in cases of social misconduct; *lowered grades or credits* (used more than twice as frequently in cases of social misconduct as in instances of academic problems fifteen years ago) is used considerably less frequently in academic problem situations today, and not at all in cases of social misconduct.

Counseling services.—All but a small fraction of the institutions reported that counseling services are provided for students (96 percent). Although a similar proportion offered such services

fifteen years ago (4, 584-90), with most institutions offering help with academic and personal problems, the percentages providing assistance with vocational problems has increased from 77 percent to 91 percent.

Responses to a question concerning the training of counselors and the amount of time devoted to counseling activities by professionally-trained persons, together with differences between institutional categories, are summarized in Table IV. According to the data, professionally-trained counselors are provided by 79 percent of the sample. It may be further observed that the large, public type of institution is more likely to provide professionally-trained counselors (approximately 88 percent in each case), but where the small, private or collegiate type of institution *does* offer such services (approximately 73 per cent in each case) a significantly larger percentage provides as many as (a) three or more trained counselors and (b) two or more full-time trained counselors, per 1,000 students enrolled.

b. Preventive Procedures

Assuming that deviation from standards could be decreased by establishing general rather than specific rules; by informing students concerning rules and regulations; and by providing opportunities for student participation in the framing of the rules and regulations under which they must live, information concerning relevant institutional procedures was obtained. According to our findings:

1. General rules were favored by 92 percent of the institutions, as contrasted with 44 percent fifteen years ago (3, p. 97).

2. Statements of rules and regulations for the guidance of students are issued by 98 percent of the respondents, as contrasted with 69 percent in 1938 (4, p. 215).

3. Student participation in the framing of rules and regulations was favored by 81 percent of the sample, as contrasted with only 5 percent

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "ARE PROFESSIONALLY-TRAINED COUNSELORS PROVIDED? IF SO, WHAT PROPORTION OF THEIR TIME IS SO USED?" WITH DIFFERENCES AMONG INSTITUTIONAL CATEGORIES INDICATED

1. Qualifications of counselors			
"Are professionally-trained counselors provided?"			
"Yes".....			79 Percent
"No".....			18 Percent
No response.....			3 Percent
			100
Differences between institutional categories:			
	No.	Percent	Difference
"Yes"			
Size of institution			
Under 1,000.....	115	73	
1,000 and over.....	103	88	15*
Source of control and support			
Private.....	127	73	
Public.....	91	87	14*
"No"			
Size of institution			
Under 1,000.....	115	24	14*
1,000 and over.....	103	10	
Source of control and support			
Private.....	127	24	14*
Public.....	91	10	
2. Proportion of time used			
Percentage of institutions providing three or more trained counselors per 1,000 enrolled:			
Size of institution			
Under 1,000.....	75	55	38*
1,000 and over.....	75	17	
Source of control and support			
Private.....	80	46	23*
Public.....	70	23	
Type of organization			
College.....	123	39	21†
University.....	27	18	
Percentage of institutions providing two or more <i>full-time</i> counselors per 1,000 students enrolled:			
Size of institution			
Under 1,000.....	68	38	23*
1,000 and over.....	73	15	
Source of control and support			
Private.....	73	33	14*
Public.....	68	19	

* Significant at the 1 percent level of confidence.

† Significant at the 2 percent level of confidence.

fifteen years ago (3, p. 196-7). Such opportunities are granted in the areas of academic deficiency, academic irregularity and social conduct by 9 percent, 18 percent and 78 percent of the institutions respectively.

Approximately 42 percent of our respondents reject the practice of defining penalties in advance. Although the large, or public institution tends

more frequently than the small, or private institution to reject this procedure, our data indicate that private institutions have shown an increasing trend in this direction since 1938 (4, p. 215).

Although 75 percent of the sample responded in the affirmative to the question, "Have you developed any

practicable and effective methods of preventing disciplinary situations from arising?," only 68 percent named the specific methods by which these results had been accomplished. Significant differences between institutional categories indicated that those under 10,000, privately supported and controlled, or collegiate in organization, tended more frequently to report the development of such methods than the larger, the public, or the university type of institution.

With reference to the specific methods found to be effective, our findings indicate significant differences between institutional categories as follows:

1. The institution of 1,000 and over tended to report *special services* for students to be an effective means of preventing academic deficiency. The institution under 1,000 found *cooperation among administration, faculty and students* effective in the prevention of academic irregularity, and *pressures to conform* a means of decreasing deviant behavior in the areas of both academic deficiency and academic irregularity.
2. The private institution tended to report *admissions policy* and *educational progress reports* to be effective methods of preventing academic deficiency. The public institution found the *orientation* program an effective preventive in this problem area.
3. The university tended to report the *orientation program* an effective means of preventing deviations in the area of social conduct.

Relatively small percentages of the respondents, however, mentioned any one of the many and varied procedures generally considered to have preventive potentialities with reference to each of the three types of disciplinary situations. For example, the largest percentages reporting effective methods in the three problem areas of academic deficiency, academic irregularity and social misconduct respectively, include: counseling—52, 26, and 28 percent; orientation—17, 13, and 26 percent; development of study skills—7, 7, and 0 percent; specialized professional services—5, 0, and 1 per-

cent; social activities program—0, 0, and 4 percent.

The health service was considered a preventive with reference to problems of academic deficiency in two cases; in problems of social misconduct, in one instance only. One respondent mentioned financial aid as an effective means of preventing academic deficiency; another considered test data and reports effective in the prevention of social misconduct.

DISCUSSION

The limitations of this study include those inherent in the questionnaire method itself. Although according to the tests used we have a representative, random, unbiased sample, there are gaps in the data resulting from failure on the part of the respondents either to answer the question or to supply all of the information requested. In the case of two of the eleven items of the questionnaire "no response" returns were received from a third of the sample. For the remaining nine items such returns were received from approximately 3 percent of the sample, although in a number of instances partial responses were submitted.

Another limitation of this study lies in the fact that our means of evaluating the effectiveness of the services offered are simply first approximations. To provide a qualitative measure of the effectiveness of the counseling facilities or of preventive procedures, or to judge the extent to which methods have actually been based upon educational objectives would require an intensive type of inquiry into the dynamics of each college community that transcends the objectives of this exploratory study.

Among the significant findings reported in this study are the following:

1. In response to an open-end question relative to institutional purpose in disciplinary ac-

tion, more than half of the sample expressed concern for the welfare of the student; only 8 percent were primarily concerned with the maintenance of institutional standards. A third of the sample, however, failed to respond. Could this mean that a clearly formulated purpose is lacking among the institutions in this substantial proportion of our sample?

2. Although it would seem that in order to evaluate the effectiveness of disciplinary procedures in terms of outcomes relative to objectives, the first essential would be the maintenance of available records to provide specific information concerning the nature and extent of deviant behavior in the college community, only 60 percent of our sample returned *some* numerical data, and only 40 percent returned information relative to all three types of deviant behavior. Since only one institution has published quantitative data relative to disciplinary procedures, however, the findings of the present survey, despite their limitations, should constitute a useful addition to the literature.

3. Although more than 75 percent of the institutions report the use of the personal interview in dealing with each of the three types of disciplinary situations, substantial percentages do not provide the basic facilities through which deficiencies in learning might be minimized or eradicated.

4. The small percentages reporting success in the prevention of disciplinary situations by means of the various procedures generally considered to be potentially useful for that purpose raises a question concerning their effectiveness that merits further inquiry.

5. The student tends most frequently to fall short of institutional expectations in the area of social conduct.

6. Significant differences in institutional philosophy, nature and extent of deviation, and procedures or practices in relation to size, source of control and support, and type of organization were observed among the institutions included in our sample.

7. Changes in procedures during the past fifteen years indicate a marked increase in acceptance of the "constructive" point of view. This observation is supported by substantial increases in the tendency to (a) vary procedures according to individual needs; (b) favor general rather than specific rules; (c) issue statements of rules and regulations for the guidance of students; and (d) grant opportunities for student participation in the framing of rules and regulations, especially in the area of social conduct. Also, the proportion of private institutions that define penalties in advance has been substantially reduced.

SUMMARY

This study is a report of a survey of college disciplinary procedures, based upon questionnaire data obtained from a 70 percent return from the 312 senior institutions of the North Central Associations as of July, 1951. It is concerned with (a) the institutional purpose of disciplinary action; (b) the nature and extent of deviant behavior; and (c) the methods of dealing with aberrations from established norms, including both corrective or remedial and preventive measures. The data have been analyzed in terms of percentage differences between institutions according to size, source of control and support (public or private), and type of organization (college or university), and those found to be significant at the 1 percent, 2 percent and 5 percent levels of confidence have been reported.

Changes in purpose and procedures that have developed since two earlier surveys were reported more than fifteen years ago have been indicated.

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Positive and Negative Leadership Traits in a College Men's Residence Hall

TECHNIQUE

EACH OF THE MEN'S residence halls at Michigan State College is divided into sections known as "precincts." Varying somewhat in size and housing at different times two or three men to a room, each of the precincts has a capacity of from fifty to one hundred men.

In each such precinct, one or two

students are selected, trained and appointed as Resident Assistants for which they are compensated by the college to the extent of receiving free board or room and board depending upon whether they are Associate or Full Resident Assistants.

The role of the Resident Assistant, particularly in the residence hall which was the scene of the study herein re-

TABLE I

ARBITRARY COMBINATIONS OF MOST FREQUENT FREE-RESPONSE REASONS GIVEN FOR PREFERRED AN INDIVIDUAL AS RESIDENT ASSISTANT, IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF MENTION

Reasons	Frequencies
1. Friendly, cooperative and pleasant (Easy to know, good guy, doesn't show authority, amiable, not domineering, easy to get along with, democratic, gets along well with men, sense of humor, good personality, good natured, personable, lots of fun, good joe, cheerful)	574
2. Responsible (Conscientious, studious, hard worker, firm, has initiative, accepts responsibility, good organizer, reliable, dependable, serious, sincere, forceful, keeps order)	356
3. Mature and respected (Veteran, older, upper-classman, steady, settled, poise, sober, stable, can handle men, has followers, good leadership, strong leadership, natural leader, good example, good influence, observes rules)	279
4. Intelligent and capable (Smart, on the ball, thinks before he acts, alert, even tempered, level headed, logical, reasonable, common sense, sensible, good judgment, resourceful, orderly, competent, experienced, active, participates, sociable, mixer, efficient)	255
5. Considerate (Respects others, obliging, thoughtful, minds own business, patient, tactful, trustworthy, generous, unselfish, helpful, impartial, fair, kind, good listener, understanding, interested in people)	201
6. Moral (Good morals, good character, integrity, frank, honest, courteous, clean, well-mannered, ethical)	76
7. Quiet	29

TABLE II

ARBITRARY COMBINATIONS OF MOST FREQUENT FREE-RESPONSE REASONS GIVEN FOR
LEAST PREFERRING AN INDIVIDUAL AS RESIDENT ASSISTANT, IN ORDER OF
FREQUENCY OF MENTION

Reasons	Frequencies
1. Carefree	
<i>(Happy go lucky, not settled, a goof-off, not serious, fools around, scatter-brained, rattle-brained, silly, no purpose, indifferent, no mind of his own, wild, not responsible, lazy, doesn't care for college, doesn't care for learning, can't apply himself, playboy, punchy, unreliable, not dependable, not studious, no ambition, no drive, not conscientious, not interested, too popular, social butterfly)</i>	116
2. Loud	
<i>(Noisy, boisterous, rambunctious, a cut-up, distracting, talks too much, mouthy, loud mouth, disorderly)</i>	81
3. Unfriendly	
<i>(Cool, not adjusted to group living, unpleasant, obstinate, can't control self, withdrawn, likes solitude, shy, too quiet, too self-conscious, introvert, not liked, not likeable, poor personality, uncooperative, doesn't get along with men, hard to get along with, impersonal, temperamental)</i>	80
4. Inconsiderate	
<i>(Fussy, narrow-minded, too particular, overbearing, wants own way, rude, tough guy, bully, no respect for others, practical joker, pranks, hood, gangster, rough, deadbeat, too strict, authoritarian, hostile, parasitic, obnoxious, too much drive, not tolerant, not respectful, not understanding, tactless, subjective, unfair, pest, biased, partial)</i>	65
5. Immature	
<i>(Not respected, can't handle men, childish, insecure, no self-confidence)</i>	64
6. Conceited	
<i>(Snobbish, egotistical, cocky, always right, boastful, wise guy, self-centered, arrogant, spoiled, too proud, selfish)</i>	54
7. Immoral	
<i>(Dishonest, doubt honesty, not trustworthy, sneaky, underhanded, hypocritical, story teller, tall tales, uncouth, low morals, vulgar, foul language, foul habits, no virtues, lousy sense of values, unclean, doesn't wash, dirty, sloppy)</i>	27
8. Incapable	
<i>(Dumb, too gullible, poor judgment, no common sense, not reasonable)</i>	18
9. Deviant	
<i>(Effeminate, griper, destructive, likes liquor, poor example, persecution complex, unconventional, anti-social)</i>	18
10. Unstable	
<i>(Uncertain, changeable, unpredictable, not steady, inconsistent, moody, bedwetter, nervous)</i>	10

ported, has been defined for a number of years as one of leadership in which the cooperative approach is stressed and the monitorial and reporting aspects are minimized.

While various characteristics such as academic status, behavioral record, leadership experience, etc., are taken into consideration in the selection of these men, the leadership rating by their fellow students has emerged as the most likely predictor of success in

this role and has, therefore, become the major criterion in the selection process.

The sociometric type of questionnaire which is used to obtain leadership ratings requests the respondent to list those men he would most prefer as Resident Assistants as well as those he would least prefer. In an effort to obtain a description of the peer image of the rôle of the Resident Assistant as well as the converse, i.e., the image of those least desired in the rôle, the

questionnaire administered in the winter of 1954 to 525 men in one of the halls included after each blank in which a name might be placed, "WHY?" This word appeared after the names of those most preferred and those least preferred.

Arbitrary combinations of these free response reasons resulted in the list of traits associated with those preferred as Resident Assistants as shown in Table I and the list associated with those least preferred as Resident Assistants as shown in Table II.

It is significant that these reasons were associated with real persons who had been confidentially named as those most preferred or least preferred as Resident Assistants. Further, 97 percent of the 525 students in the group studied returned the questionnaire upon which these findings are based.

THE STUDY REPORTED

In the study under consideration, the questionnaire was devised and administered by the advisory staff in a college men's residence hall. It was designed to elicit complete and confidential responses with assurance of not divulging one's responses to others. It was oriented toward the better selection of student leaders and roommates as well as toward more effective guidance.

The evidences of reliability and validity were impressive. Ratings by the incumbent Resident Assistants or other leaders were consistently verified by the ratings of the general population. The sixteen Resident Assistants in office at the time who had been selected on the basis of a similar rating one or more years earlier were rated among the highest twenty of the 525 students on the leadership citations.

While other combinations of the reasons for selection or rejection of leaders were possible, those cited in

Tables I and II show complete consistency in that no traits associated with leaders were at the same time associated with non-leaders and vice versa.

Frequency of citation should not be interpreted as an index of importance but as an indication of the frequency of occurrence of these traits among a group of 525 college men, who, incidentally, were predominantly freshmen.

CONCLUSIONS

Comparison of Tables I and II reveals that their peers hold an image of such leaders as Resident Assistants described as (1) friendly, cooperative and pleasant; (2) responsible; (3) mature and respected; (4) intelligent and capable; (5) considerate; (6) moral; and (7) quiet. The image of the antithesis is described as (1) unfriendly; (2) carefree; (3) immature; (4) incapable; (5) inconsiderate; (6) immoral; (7) loud; (8) conceited; (9) deviant; and (10) unstable. This rearrangement of the order of Table II shows that those most rejected as leaders possess those traits which are the logical opposites of the seven traits associated with the selected leaders and, in addition, the leader-opposite may be conceited, deviant, and/or unstable.

There seems to be little question but that commonly idealized traits were associated with real leaders. It is interesting that though these Resident Assistants are required to report certain types of offenses which result in probation and occasionally suspension, such reporting seems not to interfere with their leadership status. It is, perhaps, consistent with the responsibility trait of the peers' image of the leader.

This may be interpreted as rather strong evidence that a leader has both the friendship and respect of the group members.

Tort Liability of Minnesota School Boards

IN THEIR CORPORATE CAPACITY, school boards are occasionally called upon to do certain things which result in injuries to pupils, employees, or other people. In such cases, actions brought against the school boards are tort actions. According to Bouview (5), a recognized authority, "The word 'tort' is used to describe that branch of the law which treats of the redress of injuries which are neither crimes nor arise from the breach of contract."

With respect to school boards there may be either a commission or an omission of some act which results in an injury to a person, either directly or indirectly, in body, property, or in reputation (9, p. 358, and 31).

GENERAL NON-LIABILITY

It is accepted in common law that the school board is not liable for its own torts when acting in an official capacity (13, p. 261). Edwards (8, p. 371) holds that "The rule that neither the state nor its agents are liable in tort while in the performance of governmental functions unless made so by statute is widely accepted and has few limitations. It is perfectly clear, moreover, that the courts are not likely to modify this rule."

Corpus Juris (30, p. 531) in its division of Schools and School Districts states that "A school district or other local school organization is not liable, except when made so by statutes, for the negligence of its officers in the performance of their duties."

In discussing the common-law rule on non-liability of school districts, Weltzin (36, p. 88) says, "The school corporation as a branch or agent of the state engaged in the execution of the governmental function of furnishing education to the public, a duty involuntarily imposed upon it by the state is, in the absence of statute to the contrary, protected to the same extent as in the sovereign state from responsibility for its own torts or those of its agents resulting either from misfeasance or nonfeasance in the execution of its public duty."

When school boards are acting in a governmental or political matter, which actions are required by law, they are not liable in tort. If they are acting in a proprietary manner, then their torts are held to accountability. It is extremely difficult to determine in advance whether or not a particular act will be considered as proprietary or governmental by the courts, and few courts will do more than indicate that the particular action complained of is one or the other, without advancing any cause for this decision.

Sovereignty of the State

The reasons given why a school board cannot be held for its own actions in a corporate capacity are very interesting. The most common reason is that the school district is an agent of the state (15) and the state can do no wrong. This is derived from the ancient doctrine that the king can do no wrong

As the state, which is the king in a democracy, requires its agents, the school boards, to perform certain acts, it would be very difficult to find men who would be willing to serve on school boards if there was the possibility that their actions would often be questioned in a court of law. In any governmental action there are those people whose rights are infringed, and the possibilities of legal controversies would be great if the legislatures had not deliberately removed any likelihood that an unfriendly court would impede educational progress in a community.

Certain states, California, New York Washington (13, pp. 267-270) and, as we shall see, Minnesota, impose liability for tort actions upon their school boards under varying conditions. Specific actions complained of must be reviewed in a court of law, which makes the decisions.

Misuse of Funds

Another reason proposed for the general rule of non-liability of school districts in tort is that the school districts have no money which might be used to pay any claims that were assessed against them. It is claimed that money raised by taxation for the public welfare cannot be diverted to a private cause. In any case, the doctrine that no judgments may be allowed against a school board because it has no money to pay such judgments is hardly sound. Inability to satisfy judgments is never the reason for not allowing such verdicts to be rendered in other cases where damages have been done (24, p. 254).

It is submitted that such reasoning is basically unsound. When a school board has the responsibility to provide buildings and equipment for the children of the district, it would seem that such school property should be kept

safe for their use. If the danger is great that this might cause some poor district to be crushed by a great debt if a verdict is rendered against it, then a type of state insurance might be instituted for these smaller districts.

In Ruling Case Law (31, p. 604) there is the suggestion that under some conditions it might be possible to have taxes levied with the intention that part of such taxes would be used for the payment of possible law suits. Here the textwriter states,

The courts vary generally hold that school districts are not liable in damages for injuries caused by the negligence of their officer, agents, or employees, nor for any torts whatsoever unless such liability is imposed by statute, either in expressed terms, as where the district is given authority to levy taxes to meet such claims. But, of course, this general rule of law is limited to the district itself, and does not extend to the independent agencies doing work for the district on school property. Even the school board itself cannot render the district liable in tort, for when it commits a wrong or tort, it does not in that respect represent the district.

Ultra Vires

The theory of ultra vires is an extreme example of the great lengths to which the courts will go in order to safeguard the public funds pertaining to school districts. Briefly, this is that school boards never have the authority to go beyond the scope of their state-given powers. Therefore, when a school board engages in any action which would be a tort if done by anyone else, it thereby loses its corporate identity and becomes nothing more than a group of individuals. The torts then are committed by individual persons, not by the school board as an entity. Such reasoning is highly amazing, understandable only as a legal maneuver to safeguard the school funds. It is comparable to saying that a football team could never commit a foul or a violation, for it never has the right to do so, and if there is a vio-

lation it must have been done by one of the players acting as an individual and not as a member of the team.

Corporate Entity of School Boards

The school board must be acting within the scope of its authority and as a unit in order to escape liability for its torts. Such non-liability does not protect the individual members of the board when they act as individuals. The text writer in *Corpus Juris* (30, p. 348) observes that "A school district officer or member of a board is, however, personally liable for his own negligence or other tort or that of an agent or employee of the district when acting directly under his supervision or by his direction."

Parenthetically, it might be said that teachers are employees of the district, who are not exempt from tort liability on the basis of the above. If they commit torts they would usually, in the absence of malice or wrong intent, not be held to account under the principle of *in loco parentis*. Companies and individuals engaged in working on the school building would usually be answerable for own torts.

It has been established that school boards exist solely as units or entities. If the individual action of a single member of the board results in a court case, the board member would be liable, notwithstanding that the same action could not render him liable in tort if committed by the school board collectively.

Torts may be committed not only through specific wrongful actions but also through acting in a wrongful manner or not acting at all when the law requires something to be done. Edwards (9, p. 385) states,

Both reason and the weight of authority support the rule that school officials are not personally liable for failure to perform duty or for its negligent performance, where the duty is imposed on such officers in their corporate capac-

ity. When the law imposes a duty upon a school board it addresses itself to the board as a legal entity, and not to the members of the board as individuals. The duty is imposed upon the corporation and must be imputed to the corporation.

Accountability of School Boards

In the maintenance of a nuisance, the commission of a trespass, and in the infringement of a patent, the school board is liable for its own torts (13, p. 265). However, it is not always clear just what the courts will consider as a nuisance or a trespass.

The court may decide that a particular action is negligence on the part of the school board, and not the maintenance of a nuisance. The distinction between them is arbitrary. The courts may order the school district to change some of its actions, even though not agreeing that a nuisance has been maintained. In general, as nuisances involve property rights, courts are more likely to rule against school boards in these situations than in others.

SCHOOL DISTRICT LIABILITY IN MINNESOTA

Before tort liability of school districts and school officers in this state is discussed, it is well to examine carefully the various statutory laws that have been promulgated by the legislatures to see if there is a consistency there which will make court decisions understandable. On at least three different occasions the Minnesota Legislature has approved laws which indicate that school officials may be held liable for their own torts. First is the law of 1878 (17):

An action may be brought against them [the school trustees] in their official capacity either upon a contract made by such officers in their official capacity and within the scope of their authority, or for an injury to the rights of the plaintiff, arising from some act or omission of the officers or of the district. The actions authorized

by this chapter may be brought by or against said trustees, upon a cause of action which occurred within the term of their predecessors as well as within their own term of office, and when brought may be continued by or against the successors in office of the parties whose names may for that purpose, be submitted in the action.

In 1927 (16, section 3098) the laws were revised and slightly shortened, but the same accountability was expressed:

An action may be brought against any school district, whether upon a contract made with the district or its board, in its official capacity, and within the scope of its authority, or for an injury to the rights of the plaintiff arising from some act or omission of school board, whether the members of the board making the contract or guilty of the act or omission complained of, be still in office or not.

Finally, in 1929 the Legislature gave assent to a law which absolved the school treasurers for money lost under certain conditions (18):

. . . school treasurer who [has] reimbursed district for loss of funds of district on deposit in any bank which has or may become solvent, [then] school district may reimburse said treasurer for money so paid when the majority of electors voting thereon . . . vote to do so.

It would seem that these laws are quite plainly drawn and that it has been the intention of the Legislature to make the school boards responsible for own actions in most areas. It is the belief of the writer that it was the desire of the legislature to do this, according to the uncolored wording of the statutes.

The phrase, "injury to the rights of the plaintiff," used in both the laws of 1878 and of 1927, is ambiguous and misleading. The term, "rights," must include more than just the body or person of the plaintiff; injuries to property or reputation may then come under the general rules pertaining to torts. This is in accordance with Edward's definition (9, p. 358) rather than with Bouvier's *Law Dictionary* (5).

The entire phrase, "injury to the

rights of the plaintiff," is redundant. It has been proposed that this means only the rights of the plaintiff which the school board members, as individuals, owe to the plaintiff. This would make the entire law unnecessary, as under common law the individual members of the school board are always responsible for own torts.

There have been relatively few tort cases involving school boards that have reached the Minnesota State Supreme Court since 1859. An examination of these cases will determine if it is the intent of the Court to modify or ignore the statutory provisions in such cases.

Injury to Pupils

In 1892 a Minnesota case (3) was heard for a pupil who had been injured when he tripped on a tree root or stump on the school playground. It was charged that this dangerous obstruction had been wrongfully and negligently allowed to remain on the school grounds.

An opinion given by the state attorney-general was to the effect that the law of 1878 (*supra*) meant only that action could be taken against school trustees for wrongs committed as individuals, but not against the board members as a unit.

In a very long opinion, the court held that the school districts were a part of the educational system of the state. They were corporations with certain limited powers, organized for public purposes, with purely administrative duties. Their trustees were not liable to individuals for mere neglect or non-feasance in failing to make repairs.

It is difficult to understand how such an opinion could have been rendered by the courts. It serves to illustrate how courts may attempt to substitute their own judgments for that of the legislatures in some matters.

One year after the legislature affirmed the law of 1927 stating that school district officers certainly could have action taken against them as a body in tort cases, there appeared the Allen (1) case where again the supreme court refused to hold the school board liable. In this case the plaintiff charged that his child had suffered injury by being run over by the school bus on school property. The supreme court held that the school district was not at fault under common law for injuries which result from mere negligent operation of a bus used in the transportation of pupils at the expense of the public.

In finding that "Regardless of what the court would do were we construing this statute for the first time, we consider that the doctrine of *stare decisis* requires us to follow the rule of *Bank v. Brainerd School District*, *supra*, which in substance, holds that the Legislature did not intend to change the rule in respect to negligence of such corporations," the courts have stated that the precedent set in the *Bank* case of 1892 will be followed unless the legislature should repeal or modify that law. From the wording of the statute it is inferred by the writer that such was the intention of the legislature, and that a future court will so rule.

In another personal injury case, that of *Mokovich v. Independent School District of Virginia* (19), a high school student was blinded in one eye and partially blinded in the other as the result of having his face forced into the unslaked lime used to mark a football field, during a regularly scheduled game.

The court found that the school district was merely a governmental agent with limited powers, created only to exercise public functions for educational purposes. Such districts cannot be held liable in tort for personal injuries which may be caused by the negli-

gence of the officers or of their agents in the performance of their duties. The court further found that whether the injury resulted from a mandatory or a permissive action of the school district, there could be no liability attached to the school board. The fact that admission was charged for the game did not serve to make it a permissive action of the school board, and therefore did not alter the theory of non-liability.

In each of these three cases the courts state that there was no maintenance of a nuisance, but only the neglect of duty by the school. This cannot be a cause of action against the boards.

A case which illustrates how the rights of a child may be damaged without there being any physical injury to the child, is *State ex re. Board of Christian Service of Lutheran Minnesota Conference v. School Board of Consolidated School District No. 3* (32).

The church group in question operated an orphans' home within the school district, but for many years had provided educational facilities for its own children. At the beginning of the 1938-39 school term, some twenty odd children from the home appeared at the school house of the defendant school district and asked to be admitted.

Their entrance to the school was denied by the school board on the basis that at some time earlier the voters of the district had voted to exclude the children of the home from the public school, and that in so excluding them, the school board was merely following the wishes of the majority of the people of the district.

Mr. Justice Loring stated the opinion of the court that the important question was whether or not the children were actually residing within the school district. Laws were provided so

that all children might have the benefits of a free education, and the school board had no discretion in the matter of admitting the children, if they were truly members of the districts by virtue of residence therein. Board members then who attempted to exclude such children could be held to account, the vote of the district was not binding upon them as they were agents of the state.

The court further stated,

... the Home is the place of their dwelling indefinitely is self-evident. They have no other place, at least for the time being, where the care and support demanded by the law can be bestowed. The fact that someone may adopt a child or that his parents may be able again to undertake their duties does not render the children merely sojourners. It is at the Home where they in fact live and receive what more fortunate minors are given at their parents' homes. A residence within the district is sufficiently established, and the Home's children must be admitted to the district school on the same basis as other children. . . .

The findings in this case reaffirm the principle that the state is the determinant of the educational system of the local districts, and that the local school board is only an agent of the state, working under its direction.

Injuries to School Personnel

While the breach of a contract is not usually considered to be a tort action, it may be made so under special circumstances. In 1913 a Minnesota superintendent of schools charged (11) that a member of his school board and a school patron maliciously conspired to induce the school board to break his contract. This was done by hiring another man to assume the superintendency before the former superintendent's term of office had expired.

The state supreme court found that such malicious and wrongful interference with the contractual relations of others, which resulted in a breach of contract by one of the parties, was a

tort. The school board member and the school patron were declared joint tortfeasors.

In *Christianson v. Plummer* (6) the teacher charged that the school board broke its contract with her, not for the best interests of the school but maliciously and solely to injure her professional standing. It was maintained that this action caused a loss in her earning power, and for this the teacher sought damages.

The court agreed with the defendants that in the reasonable exercise of their duties there could be no interference by the court, nor could the defendants be held for an honest error in judgment. However, the plaintiff could recover if the school board had not acted for cause, nor in the best interests of the school, but maliciously and with evil intent to vent personal unfriendliness toward the teacher and to deprive her of her livelihood in her chosen profession as a public school teacher. The simple breaching of a contract is not usually a tort, but the way of doing it may make it one.

In another case (8) the discharged teacher claimed that such action was wrongfully taken, and requested the court to compel the school board to pay his salary for the remainder of the school year. Because evidence had been incorrectly introduced, the court remanded the case to the district court for a new trial.

In each of these three cases it is of primary importance that it be understood that not only was a contract broken, but that the plaintiffs charged that such actions were malicious, because without such charges these school boards could not be held for own torts.

Bang was a school teacher in a rural St. Louis county school (2). She became tubercular while there and entered a sanatorium. Her predecessor in the same building had been forced to

stop teaching after she became tubercular, and later died of this disease. The finding on the facts in the lower court was that the school board had not cleaned or fumigated building, books, apparatus, or even pitchpipes, between the terms of the two teachers.

The plaintiff charged that a nuisance was maintained, but the court held only negligence on the part of the school board. The court stated that the board was a quasi-public corporation, and in maintaining and conducting a school it exercised governmental, not proprietary functions. Unless made so by statute, the school board could not be held liable for its own negligence.

These cases suggest that the Minnesota Supreme Court will modify the precedents set in the *Bank v. Brainerd* case (cf. *supra*) when the actions of the school board may be imputed to maliciousness or evil intent. As a breach of contract case strikes at the very heart of a teacher's livelihood, and must subject the students to internal conflicts, such actions are likely to be carefully scrutinized by the courts.

Injuries to Non-School Persons

Only one case may be distinguished under this heading, and it does not serve to illustrate the point as well as might be desirable. In the case of *Emmons v. City of Virginia and Another* (10), the opinion of the court indicates what its future decisions might be when a strictly school case is brought before it. The court found that "Cities, through park and school boards, have of late provided playgrounds equipped with various instrumentalities for exercise and amusement. Where this has been done for the public good and gratuitously, the cities and their servants are to be regarded as agents of the government, and are not acting in a proprietary character."

There was, then, no recovery for an injury caused by a defective slide in the city park.

This decision suggests that school boards are the servants of the cities. Such an opinion is at variance with all the others that have been rendered by the state supreme court (e.g. 15).

Injuries to Property

The Eagle Creek School District took possession of a part of a house for a school, the other part was occupied by the plaintiff (12). It was charged that through the gross carelessness of the school board in failing to provide proper heating facilities, the building was destroyed by fire.

The court held that the plaintiff had the right of indemnity for damages. Mr. Justice Atwater stated that the claim of the plaintiff depended not upon his contract with the school board, but rather upon the right which everyone has to be protected from injury caused by the carelessness of others.

It is interesting to note that in this case the defendants tried to show that they were engaged in an *ultra vires* act in trespassing upon the building of the plaintiff, and therefore should not be held as a corporate entity, but the justices agreed that this could not be used as a defense to relieve the board members of liability.

The school inspectors of St. Paul (21) graded sites for schools and erected a retaining wall on one site which caused surface waters to be diverted into adjacent lands. The supreme court held that if such flooding of the neighboring land was merely incidental to the improvement of the ground, the theory of non-liability of school boards held, even if the waters were not distributed in the same manner as before.

In another city when the school district and the city council jointly filled

in a ravine on school property so that dirt washed onto plaintiff's land, they were held liable for damages done (4). This was considered to be both a trespass upon the property of the plaintiff and the maintenance of a nuisance.

Personal Tort Liability of School District Officers

The Sanborn v. Neal case (26) might be cited as an example of the careful protection given to school boards in Minnesota by the state supreme court. This case occurred before the law was passed which allowed action to be taken against the torts of school board members.

The trustees of the school district had signed a note as "Trustees of School District No. 10," but did not include their official title with their signatures. The court, however, held that "... the language of the promise sufficiently indicates an intention not to be individually liable and when public agents in good faith contract in their official capacity with parties having full knowledge of the extent of their authority, or who have equal means of knowledge with themselves, they do not become individually liable, unless the intent to incur a personal responsibility is clearly expressed, although from ignorance of law they may exceed their authority." Another case involved the theft of school funds. The court held that when the law clearly stated that it was the duty of the treasurer of the school board to account for all money received by him, and to pay over the unexpended portion to his successor, the fact that the money had been stolen was not sufficient to relieve the treasurer of his obligations (22). The treasurer could not be absolved of his responsibility in any manner, since the theft occurred prior to the 1929 law which might have given some relief. Neither the fact that

his place of business was burglarized and the school money taken, nor a vote of the school district and the board of education to discharge his legal obligation, was effectual. The courts no doubt reasoned that the diversion of public funds into private hands would work a hardship upon the children of the district.

Aiton was treasurer of a school board and also president of the local bank (28). Under such conditions the bank could not be a *de jure* depository, but a *de facto* depository was established when school money was put into it. When the bank became insolvent the supreme court asserted that the surety was not liable for any public money deposited in any bank which was lost through the failure of that bank.

Another school board treasurer was also the cashier of a local bank (23). This bank could never become a *de jure* depository, but was only a *de facto* one. The treasurer was bonded by a bonding company. When the bank became insolvent, the company claimed that it was not liable for the funds in the bank as section 2837 of the Minnesota laws of 1927 (16) stated that sureties were not liable for loss of funds caused by bank failures.

The supreme court held that the sureties on the bonds were liable for the loss, as the laws contained only statutory provisions and no limitations were set by them as to the liability imposed thereby. As the bank was not a legal depository, the school board treasurer and the bonding company were jointly responsible to the district for funds lost.

After 1929 (18) the school treasurers were given some protection by the state legislature. Moser (33) was the treasurer of his school board. As such he deposited the school money in a bank which subsequently failed. As the bank had never been formally desig-

nated as the depository of the public school funds, the treasurer was absolutely liable for the funds he had received. He reimbursed the school district, which upon a vote of the electorate, returned the money to him. This action was upheld by the supreme court, but two of the justices dissented, saying that it was a taxation for private purposes, and a diversion of the public funds.

A restraining order was granted to stop work on a building project whose contract was let on a cost-plus basis (37). As winter was approaching, an agreement was made to do only certain protective work. Part of the excavation fell in. The supreme court held that the trial court could properly determine the value to the district of the uncompleted building. This value was correctly determined as of the time of the restraining order. When contract was let on a cost-plus basis, the contract was illegal, and the district must pay for the reasonable value of any benefits it received from the unfinished building.

The textwriter in *The Northwestern Reporter* used similar terms in commenting upon the case of *Olson v. Independent and Consolidated School District No. 50* (20): "A judgment entered in a taxpayer's suit against a school district, restraining the performance of a contract, illegal for want of previous authorization by the voters, is not a bar to a suit by one of the contracting parties to recover for the reasonable value of the benefits which the district received from them."

When a school board purchased lands and erected school buildings thereon, without a vote of the electors, the members of the school board were liable as individuals for the funds expended (34). They were liable for the unauthorized purchase of the land, for the money spent under an illegal con-

tract, and for the cost of the building in excess of a reasonable and fair amount.

In a case (14) which resulted from the above Trichler case, the former board member was to pay \$10,500 as his share of the unauthorized expenditures. If this was paid within 30 days he would have received a deed for the lots purchased by the school board. However, the school board sold the lots to another person, but the court held that the purchase price of the lots (which was less than the \$10,500 that this Mr. Johnson had to repay the school board) should be offset against his liability.

When a school district treasurer wrongfully issued non-negotiable school warrants, he was held not liable for his actions (7), hence the surety for the treasurer's bond was not required to pay the amount of the school warrants.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A tort is an act or omission of an act which results in injury to someone, either in body, in property, or in reputation. A breach of contract is not usually considered a tort, unless there was malice or evil intent accompanying it.

School boards are merely agents of the state, empowered to carry out certain functions of the state within a local area. As such they share in the immunity to tort action which is reserved to the state governments. States are sovereign bodies, as are their agents when acting for the state. School funds may not be used for private purposes as in the payment of any judgments which might be entered against the school boards if tort actions were allowed against them. It has also been suggested that the reason school boards are not liable in tort is that when the board engages in actions which injure other people, it thereby is acting as a

group of individuals and not as a corporate unit, for there is never any authority or right to commit torts.

School district officers are personally liable for their own negligence, or for the negligence of their employees or agents when working under the direction of the school board members individually. Teachers are employees, not officers, of the district.

In opposition to the general rule of non-liability of school boards is the fact that they are liable under three conditions; the maintenance of a nuisance, the commission of a trespass, and the infringement of a patent. It is the duty of the courts to decide whether or not a particular action falls into one of these three categories.

At various times the Minnesota Legislature has adopted three laws which indicate that it was the intention of the legislature to allow actions for injuries in tort to be brought against the school boards in their corporate capacities. The first two of these laws state that action may be brought "... for an injury to the rights of the plaintiff, arising from an act or omission of the officers or of the district. . . ." The third law states that upon a favorable vote of the district electorate, the school treasurer may be refunded any money which he may have been required to pay as a result of losing school funds through bank insolvencies.

In three personal injury suits the state supreme court has ruled that the school boards are not liable for mere negligence in the performance of their duties. The courts seem to be zealous in safeguarding the school boards by not holding them accountable for their torts, although the laws of the legislature certainly suggest that school boards were not to be considered completely immune from liability under all circumstances.

The basic principle of the court seems to be that the children of the state must have a free education, and anything which might tend to make such education of a lower quality or to deny it altogether, must be revised or done away with.

Contracts between the school board and the superintendents or the principals may result in tort action if it is held that the breaking of such contract was done maliciously, and not in the best interests of the pupils. A conspiracy to break a contract and injure a teacher in her professional standing is a tort, for which the school board members as individuals are responsible.

Apparently teachers cannot recover for any personal injuries suffered because of the inadequate condition of the school building, or injuries sustained on the playground.

There have been no good, clear, opinions as to whether or not the school boards may be liable for injuries to non-school people. In a case involving an injury because of defective city equipment, the supreme court found that park and school boards were not accountable for injuries suffered on such playground apparatus.

If the action of the school board results in the injury to the property of another, there is ordinarily no recourse in law, unless such injury was the result of a trespass.

Until 1929 when the legislature adopted laws which allowed school districts to absorb losses caused by bank failures, the treasurer of the school district had to make good such losses.

If money is illegally paid for the construction of buildings, the purchases of school sites, or the payment of bills, the school board members are individually liable, although the benefits received from their actions may be used to reduce the amount of liability.

A study of these cases indicates that

the Minnesota Supreme Court is and has been extremely reluctant to construe any statute so that it has the effect of using the public school funds for any other purpose than the education of the young. Sometimes the individual members of the school board may be held to account, but rarely has the board as a unit been liable. Such decisions have had the effect of furthering education within the state, but may work hardship on certain individuals.

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Faculty Training and Salaries in Institutions of Higher Education

IT NOW SEEMS CLEAR that the majority of colleges and universities in the United States, confronted with a greatly increased number of applications for admission in the next few years, will, for better or worse, choose the course of rapid expansion rather than the alternative of rigorous selection of students. An expansion of this magnitude has tremendous consequences for the staffing of higher institutions even though the conventional notions of desirable class size and teaching load should be abandoned. It seems clear that the demand for college teachers will far exceed the supply and that the shortage of staff will result in higher faculty salaries.

It is difficult to see how, under these circumstances, it will be possible to avoid some deterioration in the quality of higher education. The competition for able teachers will be more intense than it has ever been, and it is not unlikely that even teachers of ordinary ability will be in heavy demand. The institution that decides to hold to its present size and thus attempt to main-

tain the quality of its program will still face the difficult problem of keeping its staff intact against the inroads of offers from other institutions. We in higher education shall be faced with many of the same difficulties with which the secondary schools grappled during their period of expansion.

Surely, wisdom requires that we not walk into this predicament without having given the most careful consideration to the several alternatives for meeting the staff problem. One of these alternatives is a reduction in the length of preparation expected of college teachers, or at least of teachers of undergraduate or of lower division students. To examine this alternative intelligently we need to know with some precision the level of training of our faculty members in colleges and universities at the present time. From the analysis that follows it will become clear that some of the assumptions we make about the training of college teachers are not justified by the facts.

The data which will be presented in this article were secured from 330 member institutions of the North Central Association in 1952-53. The sample includes about 30,000 teachers in colleges and universities of all types—probably the largest faculty sample for which individual data have ever been compiled. The information was provided by the institutions as a part of the biennial study plan of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Under this plan the member higher

¹ The authors wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to two persons who, though not authors of this report, contributed importantly to the study. Norman Burns, Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association, in whose office the study was made, gave encouragement and valuable counsel at many points in the project. Samuel B. Horowitz, Research Assistant in the office of the Secretary of the Commission, was largely responsible for the collection and analysis of the data. He devoted many months to the planning and execution of the study.

institutions are asked to report on faculty, library, and finance, in a six-year cycle of studies, one of which is made during each biennium. The biennial studies have three purposes: to assemble data that will be useful to the member colleges and universities; to provide some check on conditions in these institutions, in so far as it is possible to appraise educational quality through questionnaire studies; and to suggest trends in higher education that should be taken into account in the accrediting procedure and other activities of the Commission. It has been customary for the results of such studies to be summarized and distributed to the member institutions for their information.

In this study special attention has been given to several areas in which little if any research has been done. In particular, analyses have been made of differentials in training and in salaries among disciplines or teaching fields. While the existence of such differentials has long been recognized (for example, every administrator has known that persons with Doctor's degrees are rarer in music than in chemistry and that the salaries of physicists are higher than those of Greek scholars), a precise treatment of these differentials for a large sample of faculty members has been lacking. Also, in this study prominence has been given to an analysis of faculty preparation and salaries for relatively homogeneous groups of colleges and universities.

The authors are quite aware of the limitations of the kind of information that will be presented, particularly in the section on faculty preparation. It is not possible in any questionnaire study to include the many intangible factors that must be taken into account in a refined appraisal of a college or university faculty. Statistical data on

degrees are by no means conclusive evidence of faculty quality. But few of us would concede that degrees have no relation to faculty competence. Every higher institution regards such qualifications as important in the selection and promotion of staff members. The wise institution will always welcome the gifted teacher who lacks conventional preparation, but it will also probably insist that some defensible level of training be maintained for the faculty as a whole. Most colleges and universities want assurance that they are not falling too far behind their peers in the academic training they expect of their respective staffs. In the interpretation of data on degrees one must always bear in mind, too, that degrees are not well-defined measures of scholarly maturity. The Ph.D. degree, for example, does not represent the same level of accomplishment in all universities. It may well be that a Ph.D. degree from one institution signifies a lower level of achievement than a master's degree from another university. Even in universities of the first rank the standards for the doctorate will differ from one department to another. Also, within a single department there are likely to be wide differences in the competence of students who secure the same degree at the same time.

One of the things that have impressed the authors most in this study is the extraordinary range of degrees conferred by American colleges and universities, not to mention foreign institutions. There are dozens of degrees in common use in this country. How can we equate these degrees, or even describe what they mean? The problem is further complicated by the difficulty of distinguishing between professional and academic degrees. Sometimes, it would seem, a professional degree is conferred on candidates who are

unable to meet the requirements for a standard academic degree, the professional degree merely representing a lower level of competence of approximately the same kind as that for which the academic degree is conferred, while in other cases the professional degree means that the student has completed a wholly different type of program. To illustrate these points, how can we compare the Doctor of Education degree with the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education? It is perhaps possible to make a distinction between these two degrees in a given university, but it is very questionable whether such a distinction could be made for the country at large. To say that one of the degrees is primarily for professional practitioners and that the other is for scholars in the professional field hardly answers the question. And then, where do such degrees as Bachelor of Laws and Doctor of Jurisprudence fit into the usual scheme of Bachelor's, Master's and Doctor's degrees? Does the Bachelor of Laws degree mean more or less in its professional field than the Master of Arts degree in one of the academic fields? These examples will suffice to make clear, if it was not already apparent, the difficulty of interpreting degrees.

Faculty training has to be considered, of course, in relation to type of institution. For example, the selection of faculty members for a junior college is a very different matter from the choice of persons for a graduate school. This makes necessary some kind of grouping scheme when faculty competence is being studied in a large number of institutions. In the years since the systematic study of higher education began many attempts have been made to develop a classification of institutions that would result in homogeneous groups. However, because of the tremendous variety in American

higher education, resulting in part from the absence of central control, the efforts to separate American colleges and universities into homogeneous groups for purposes of study have been largely unsuccessful. Governmental agencies, accrediting associations, and other groups concerned with this problem have had to be content with very rough groupings which precluded refined statistical comparisons.

In this study twelve classifications have been developed which result in a reasonable degree of homogeneity. A small number of institutions that could not be accommodated in these classifications has simply been omitted from the study. The twelve groups are as follows:

1. Public junior colleges. Tax-supported institutions offering programs that extend approximately two years beyond high school. Thirty-three such institutions were included in the study.
2. Private and church-related junior colleges. (Thirteen institutions)
3. Public colleges, primarily undergraduate. Most of these institutions specialize in the training of public school teachers. Some of them offer a limited fifth-year or Master's degree program. (Fifty-four institutions)
4. Roman Catholic colleges, primarily undergraduate. Some of these institutions offer a limited fifth-year or Master's degree program. (Forty-two institutions)
5. Private colleges that are primarily undergraduate and not legally related to churches. Limited graduate programs in some cases. (Twenty-nine institutions)
6. Protestant colleges, primarily undergraduate, with limited graduate programs in a few cases. It is not simple to distinguish all of the colleges in this group from those in Group 5, since there are many degrees of church relationship. (Eighty institutions)
7. Enlarged public colleges, offering Master's or Doctor's programs and in most instances liberal arts as well as teacher education. (Twenty institutions)
8. Public universities of medium scope. These are institutions that began as teachers colleges or liberal arts colleges or agricultural and mechanical colleges and have expanded their functions to include other curricula. They have fairly extensive graduate pro-

- grams. This is not a very homogeneous group. (Fifteen institutions)
9. Private universities of medium scope. These institutions offer professional and graduate work in several fields. They are universities of the urban type, many of whose students live at home. (Seven institutions)
 10. Complex public universities. With one exception these are state universities and land-grant colleges. They offer professional and graduate work in many fields. Most of them have extensive doctoral and research programs. (Twenty-five institutions)
 11. Complex Roman Catholic universities. All but one of these are institutions of the urban type. Each offers graduate and professional work in a number of fields. (Six institutions)
 12. Separate technological institutions. This group includes both public and private institutions specializing in engineering and related fields. (Six institutions)

The list of institutions included in each group appears in the appendix. Perhaps these lists themselves define the groups better than formal descriptions.

The same classification of institutions is followed in the second section of this report, dealing with faculty remuneration. Here again it will be profitable to consider the data in the light of the anticipated problem of financing and staffing higher institutions in the next decade. The salary differentials among types of colleges and universities, as well as within individual institutions, will pose acute questions of policy as enrolments increase, the competition for faculty personnel becomes intense, and institutions struggle to secure financial support for an expanding operation.

LEVEL OF FACULTY TRAINING

A notion commonly held both by the public and by persons on the staffs of colleges and universities is that the desirable level of training for teachers in higher institutions is that denoted by possession of a Doctor's degree. From this it is often inferred that the great majority of faculty members do in

fact hold a Doctor's degree. The data of this study, including almost 30,000 full-time faculty members in 330 colleges and universities—probably a good sample for American higher education as a whole—provide a factual basis on which to draw conclusions about faculty degrees and other matters. To facilitate interpretation the data were arranged in the following ways: (a) a distribution of faculty members according to highest degree; (b) a distribution of faculty members according to highest degree and academic rank; and (c) a distribution of faculty members according to highest degree and field of instruction. The first distribution gives the over-all picture of faculty preparation, and the other two present relationships between the level of preparation or training and the factors of rank and field of instruction. These three kinds of distribution were examined for the institutions as a whole and for the institutions grouped according to the twelve types described above.

The classification of degrees in this study requires a brief explanation. The term "Doctor's degrees" means specifically the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy, Doctor of Science, and Doctor of Education. Other doctorates, such as the degrees of Doctor of Theology, Doctor of Medicine, Doctor of Dental Surgery, Doctor of Engineering, Doctor of Jurisprudence, and Doctor of Veterinary Medicine, are classified as "other degrees." (The reader is referred to the appendix for a fuller listing of the specific degrees included in each classification.) Any classification of degrees is to some extent arbitrary and controversial. The classification used in this report can be justified only on the grounds that it would probably be acceptable to most academic administrators.

The distribution of faculty members

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREES AMONG FACULTY
MEMBERS IN 330 COLLEGES AND
UNIVERSITIES

Highest Degrees*	Percent	Number
Doctor's	36.1	10,630
Master's	47.5	14,005
Bachelor's	9.4	2,777
Other Degrees	5.8	1,700
No Degree	1.2	340
Totals	100.0	29,452

* The specific degrees included in each degree classification are listed in the appendix.

according to their highest degrees is shown in Table I. Almost one-half of the teachers included in this study (47.5 percent) hold Master's degrees as their highest degrees, while scarcely more than one-third (36.1 percent) have attained Doctor's degrees. Almost one of every ten faculty members holds only baccalaureate degrees. From this it is clear that a Doctor's degree is by no means "standard equipment" for teachers in institutions of higher education. The predominance of the Master's degree is surprising in view of the availability of doctoral programs in dozens of universities with a range of academic standards; the pressure from administrators, accrediting agencies, and faculties themselves toward advanced graduate study as preparation for college teaching; and the widespread emphasis on research as an institutional function.

In the interpretation of Table I it should be borne in mind that many persons with Master's degrees have completed additional graduate study toward the doctorate. One should not, therefore, assume that the typical staff member ended his formal education upon receiving his Master's degree. On the other hand, it should be noted that the institutions providing the data

for this study are all accredited by the North Central Association. It is reasonable to assume that, by virtue of the requirements for accreditation, a larger proportion of faculty members in these institutions will ordinarily possess Doctor's degrees than in institutions which are not members of the Association. Accordingly, if all higher institutions in the region were included, the percentage of persons with the Doctor's degree would doubtless be even less.

Next we turn to an analysis of faculty training in relation to academic rank and teaching field. This brings to view some very interesting differentials not suggested by an examination of training alone.

The distribution of faculty members by rank is shown in Table II. Except for junior colleges, in which academic rank is not common, the four ranks of Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, and Instructor are almost universally employed, and it is noteworthy that the faculty members included in this study are almost evenly divided between the ranks of Professor and Associate Professor, on the one hand, and the ranks of Assistant Professor and Instructor, on the other. The percentage of faculty members in the two upper ranks is 48.4 percent and in the two lower ranks, 48.7 percent. Likewise, the distribution of

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF FACULTY MEMBERS
BY RANK*

Ranks	Percentage
Professor	27.0
Associate Professor	21.4
Assistant Professor	27.8
Instructor	20.9
No Rank	2.9
Totals	100.0

* Junior college faculties not included.

TABLE III

PERCENT OF FACULTY MEMBERS WITH DOCTOR'S, MASTER'S, OR BACHELOR'S DEGREES WHO ARE IN EACH OF THE FOUR ACADEMIC RANKS*

Ranks	Doctor's Degrees		Master's Degrees		Bachelor's Degrees	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Professor	44.5	4,604	14.3	1,799	11.4	271
Associate Professor	25.6	2,653	20.2	2,542	11.3	267
Assistant Professor	22.8	2,360	33.7	4,249	22.7	536
Instructor	5.0	514	27.6	3,468	53.6	1,268
No Rank	2.1	219	4.2	533	1.0	24
Totals	100.0	10,350	100.0	12,591	100.0	2,366

* Does not include data on faculty members in junior colleges.

persons among the four ranks is approximately equal. The data themselves do not, however, suggest the reason for this balance.

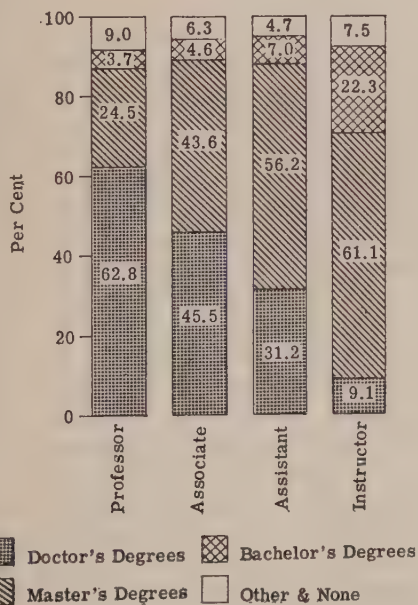
Table III presents data on rank and training. Since the junior colleges reported very few faculty members under

some ranking system—none at all for the public institutions and only 14.8 percent for the private and church-related junior colleges—they are not included in this tabulation or in any of the other tabulations based on academic rank. Likewise, some public undergraduate colleges and a few enlarged public colleges reported no ranking system, but the percentage of faculty members included in some ranking system in these institutions is large enough, 79 per cent and 86.5 percent, respectively, to warrant considering these groups in the calculations.

That there is a close relationship between the highest degree held by a faculty person and his academic rank is clear from Table III. This table shows the percentages of faculty members possessing the Doctor's, Master's, or Bachelor's degree who are in each of the four academic ranks. A "No Rank" category appears in the table because all the persons with Doctor's, Master's, or Bachelor's degrees in institutions other than junior colleges are included, and, as noted above, some of the faculty members in the public undergraduate colleges and enlarged public colleges do not have academic rank.

Table III shows that most persons

FIGURE 1. PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS WITH VARIOUS DEGREES IN EACH OF THE FOUR ACADEMIC RANKS.



with Doctor's degrees are either in the rank of Professor (44.5 percent) or Associate Professor (25.6 percent); 70.1 percent of the faculty members holding Doctor's degrees are in one of these two ranks. On the other hand, only 34.5 percent of all persons holding Master's degrees as their highest degrees are in either of these two ranks, and only 22.7 percent of those holding Bachelor's degrees are in either of these ranks. These figures dramatize the fact that degrees are an important factor in the rank system of most colleges and universities in the United States.

Another, and perhaps more useful, way to analyze the relationship between rank and training is to consider the degrees held by faculty members in each of the four ranks. Figure 1 presents the results of such an analysis. The pattern is quite clear. With each step upward in rank the level of training of faculty members also rises. While Table I shows that only 36.1 percent of the total faculty possess Doctor's degrees, Figure 1 indicates that 62.8 percent of the faculty members holding the rank of Professor have Doctor's degrees, and 45.5 percent of the faculty members holding the rank of Associate Professor have Doctor's degrees. The persons included in these two ranks constitute roughly one-half of the total faculty. For both the rank of Professor and Associate Professor the percentage of faculty members holding Doctor's degrees is greater than for the faculty as a whole. It should be observed, however, that the ranks of Professor and Associate Professor are by no means exclusively held by faculty members with Doctor's degrees. Almost one-fourth (24.5 percent) of the Professors and 43.6 percent of the Associate Professors hold Master's degrees as their highest degrees.

Another important factor that should be taken into account in the

interpretation of the statistics on the training of the total group of faculty members, as presented in Table I, is the relationship between level of training and field of instruction. American higher education has become a far-flung enterprise embracing a multiplicity of fields of study and a tremendous variety of educational activities. The kind and amount of preparation expected of candidates for college and university teaching positions differ widely among fields. The fact of such differences has long been recognized by administrators and teachers. For example, no one would expect the teacher of graduate students in chemistry and the violin instructor to have similar training. The former would normally possess the Ph.D. degree, while the latter will often have secured his training under private teachers and as a violin player in distinguished orchestras, and might not even have a Bachelor's degree. In other fields a doctoral program is regarded as desirable preparation but is relatively new and is expected only of younger teachers. Other factors as well make for differences in the proportion of persons with Doctor's degrees in different fields, such as the number of persons who annually receive degrees in the field and the competition of non-educational agencies for persons trained at the Doctor's degree level. To the extent that these factors are recognized, the over-all level of training of a large faculty group can be interpreted with greater insight. Unfortunately, comparative data on faculty training in different teaching fields have not been available heretofore.

The size of the faculty sample on which this study is based made possible a fruitful analysis of current degree levels in a variety of fields. In this analysis a faculty member was considered to be teaching in a given field

if he devoted the major part of his time to instruction in that field. Faculty members whose teaching could not readily be identified with one clearly defined field were excluded from the calculations. Table IV shows the percentage of faculty members with Doctor's degrees in certain fields that are important in almost all types of institutions. It should be emphasized that these figures are broadly representative for higher education as a whole; they do not apply to specific types of institutions. For example, about 75 per cent of the college and university teachers in the field of history have completed doctoral programs, but in some universities the percentage approaches 100, while in many junior colleges no teacher of history holds a Doctor's degree. In a subsequent section of this report the differentials among types of institutions will be considered in detail. At this point it is sufficient to note that there are substantial differences in level of training among even the common fields of instruction.

FACULTY TRAINING IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

We turn now from an account of the level of faculty training in all 330 colleges and universities included in the

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY MEMBERS WITH
DOCTOR'S DEGREES TEACHING IN
SELECTED FIELDS

Fields	Percentage
History	75.5
Psychology	75.2
Chemistry	74.8
Biology	71.0
Political Science	66.9
Physics	65.0
Economics	56.6
Education	54.2
Mathematics	50.5
English	41.7

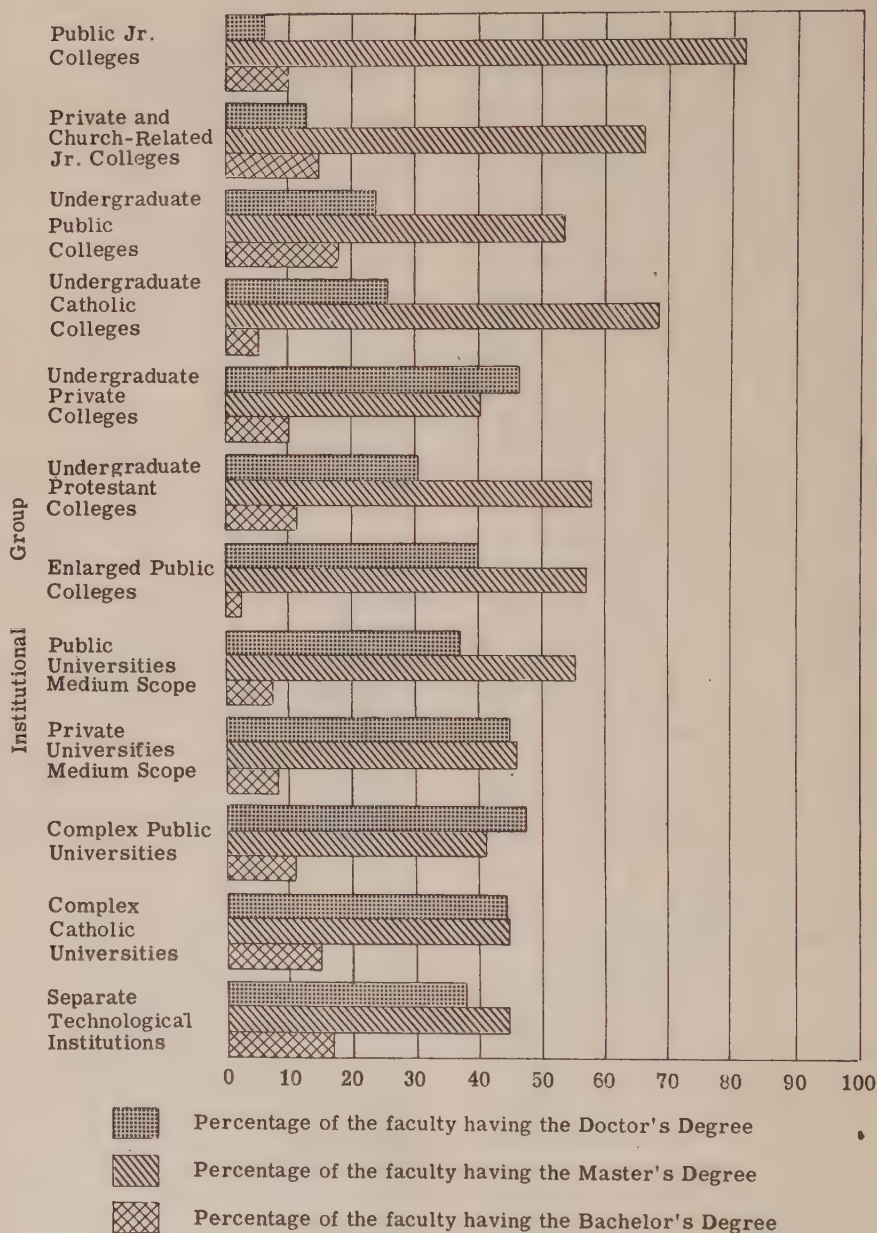
TABLE V
PERCENT OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN EACH
INSTITUTIONAL GROUP WHO POSSESS
DOCTOR'S DEGREES

Rank Order (Highest to Lowest)	Percent
1. Undergraduate Private Colleges	46.6
2. Complex Public Universities	42.9
3. Private Universities of Medium Scope	41.7
4. Public Universities of Medium Scope	39.8
5. Separate Technological Institutions	36.1
6. Enlarged Public Colleges	35.8
7. Complex Catholic Universities	35.7
8. Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	29.7
9. Undergraduate Public Colleges	26.0
10. Undergraduate Catholic Colleges	24.0
11. Private Junior Colleges	12.9
12. Public Junior Colleges	6.0

study to a comparative consideration of degrees, degrees in relation to academic rank, and degrees in relation to teaching field in different types of higher institutions. The groups of institutions on which the analysis is based are those described in the introduction.

In Table V the twelve groups of institutions are listed in descending order according to the percentage of faculty members who have Doctor's degrees. It should be noted that in no group of institutions do as many as one-half of the faculty members possess such degrees. Of all the types of institutions the undergraduate private colleges as a group have the largest percentage of faculty members with doctorates—46.6 percent. It is surprising that a group of undergraduate institutions should rank above universities having extensive graduate programs. The explanation probably lies in the comprehensiveness of many of the universities, that is, the fact that they offer curricula in many fields in which the Doctor's degree is not the usual level of preparation for teaching. It is not surprising that the private and public junior college groups have a relatively small percentage of

FIGURE 2. PERCENTAGE OF THE FACULTY IN EACH OF THE TWELVE INSTITUTIONAL GROUPS WHO HOLD THE DOCTOR'S, MASTER'S, OR BACHELOR'S DEGREE.



(Not pictured on this are percentages of those who are classified under "Other Degrees" and those who have no academic degree.)

persons with Doctor's degrees on their staffs. As Figure 2 shows, junior college staffs are largely composed of persons with Master's degrees.

Some comparison between institutional groups can be made by reference to Figure 2. This graph shows that in only two groups is the percentage of faculty members who have Doctor's degrees greater than the percentage who have Master's degrees. These two groups are the undergraduate private colleges and the complex public universities. The former report 46.6 percent of the faculty with Doctor's degrees and 40.9 percent with Master's degrees, while the corresponding percentages for the complex public universities are 42.9 and 37.1. It may be noted, however, that these two groups of institutions account for 13,683, or 46.4 percent, of the total number of the faculty members of the higher institutions of the region. In all the other institutional groups the percentage of faculty members with Master's degrees is greater than the percentage with Doctor's degrees. The Master's degree appears to be by far the most typical degree in the junior colleges, undergraduate Catholic colleges, undergraduate public colleges, undergraduate Protestant colleges, and public universities of medium scope, and enlarged public colleges.

It is worthy of note that in six of the institutional groups 10 percent or more of the faculty have only Bachelor's degrees and three of these groups report over 15 percent of their faculty with Bachelor's degrees. It would appear that a number of persons are teaching in accredited colleges and universities as full-time faculty members who possess little more preparation than the senior students in their own institutions. It is somewhat sobering to realize, when one considers the data summarized in Figure 2, that in

many of the institutions comprising "higher education" the level of training of the faculty is not much higher, if any, than that of the faculty in a strong secondary school. More and more high school faculty members are continuing their training up to and beyond the Master's degree. In this respect it is entirely possible that some of the better financed high schools would outrank a number of colleges.

Parenthetically, reference may be made to a North Central Association study of faculty status in 1948 in which it was shown that from 1935-36 to 1945-46 the median percentage of persons with Doctor's degrees increased slightly over 10 percent.¹ A comparison of the norms for 1945-46 with those of 1952-53, however, shows that there has been a decrease in this median percentage in three of the four groups into which the member institutions were divided in the 1945-46 study.² It would seem that as the expected increase in enrolment materializes, this trend will be accentuated and the percentage of persons with the doctorate on the staffs of colleges and universities will be even smaller than it now is.

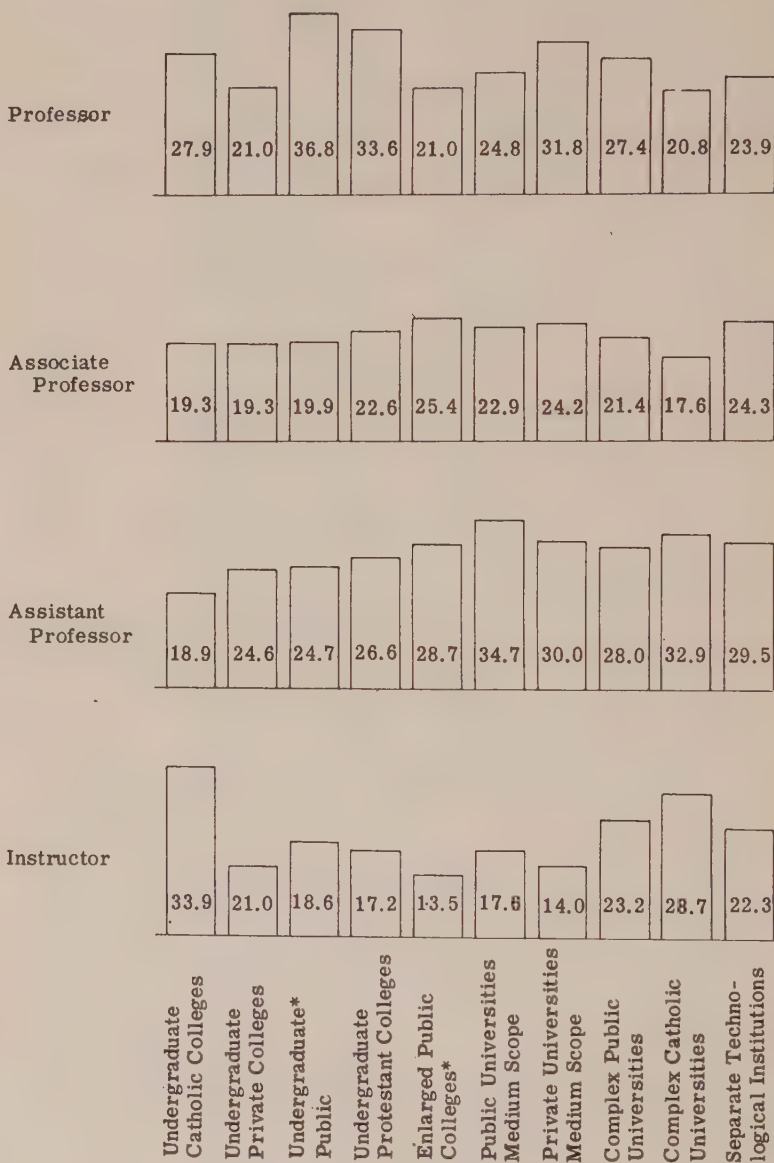
We have already examined the distribution of faculty members according to highest degree and academic rank for the entire 330 institutions. Figure 3 gives this same information for the institutions grouped according to type. This graph shows that there is a greater number of persons in the higher ranks

¹ John H. Russel and Norman Burns, "Faculty Status in Member Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1945-46," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (April, 1948), 398.

² The median percentages for Bachelor's degree-granting institutions were 34.03 for 1945-46 and 29.5 for 1952-53; in junior colleges, 7.8 and 1.4, respectively; in Master's degree-granting institutions, 37.5 and 38.7, respectively; and in Doctor's degree-granting institutions, 46.4 and 41.0, respectively.

FIGURE 3. DISTRIBUTION OF FACULTY MEMBERS ACCORDING TO RANK WITHIN EACH OF THE INSTITUTIONAL GROUPS AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GROUPS.

(Figures are in percentages)



*Undergraduate Public Colleges report in addition 21.0 not ranked;
Enlarged Public Colleges report in addition 13.5 not ranked.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY MEMBERS AT EACH RANK WHO POSSESS DOCTOR'S DEGREES
IN TEN GROUPS OF INSTITUTIONS

Groups of Institutions Listed in Order of the Percentage of Professors with Doctorates	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Whole Faculty
Public Universities of Medium Scope	81.6	54.0	17.8	1.7	39.8
Undergraduate Private Colleges	69.1	49.8	28.7	11.9	46.6
Enlarged Public Colleges	68.0	39.6	26.0	7.0	35.8
Complex Public Universities	62.8	56.1	42.9	11.4	42.9
Undergraduate Public Colleges	62.7	26.2	10.0	1.0	26.0
Private Universities of Medium Scope	60.9	55.3	27.8	6.7	41.7
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	59.4	25.8	13.2	2.0	29.7
Undergraduate Catholic Colleges	55.6	17.3	19.5	6.1	24.0
Separate Technological Institutions	54.0	39.7	30.0	12.9	36.1
Complex Catholic Institutions	51.8	52.0	39.1	15.8	35.7

than in the lower ranks in most of the institutional groups. In three of these groups the percentage of faculty members included in the rank of Professor is greater than that for any other rank. These groups are the undergraduate private colleges, the undergraduate Protestant colleges, and the private universities of medium scope. In seven of the institutional groups the percentage of faculty members included in the rank of Professor is greater than that of the faculty members included in the rank of Instructor. A careful inquiry into the reasons for higher percentages of Professors in certain types of institutions lies beyond the scope of this study, but two possible explanations would seem promising: (1) that there is a tendency to appoint at least one Professor in a department, even in institutions with a number of one- and two-man departments; and (2) institutions with salary levels that do not enable them to compete financially with other institutions for staff may use promotions in rank as a substitute for salary increases.

Table VI presents in order from highest to lowest the percentages of faculty members at each rank who possess Doctor's degrees in each of ten

groups of institutions. Although there is a progression in training from lower to higher rank in each group of institutions, this progression is by no means uniform from one type to another. Note, for example, the tendency of complex public universities, separate technological institutions, and complex Catholic universities to secure a level of training at the rank of Assistant Professor which compares favorably with that of Associate Professors. This is pronounced in the case of Catholic universities. Also, it is noteworthy that the relative position of the groups of institutions on professorial training bears little relation to the level of training of their Instructors. For example, public universities of medium scope rank highest on the training of Professors but quite low on the doctorates held by their Instructors. Thus, there seem to be significant differences in faculty personnel policies among the groups of colleges and universities.

Table VII shows the percentage of faculty members teaching in thirteen fields who have doctorates. Percentages were not computed for all fields in all types of institutions. Figures are shown for categories which were

TABLE VII
PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS WITH DOCTORATES TEACHING IN SELECTED FIELDS IN TEN GROUPS OF INSTITUTIONS

Institutions Grouped by Type	Teaching Fields												
	History	Psy- chology	Chem- istry	Biology	Political Science	Physics	Lan- guages and Lin- guistics	Eco- nomics	Educa- tion	Mathe- matics	English	Engi- neering	Music
Undergraduate Catholic Colleges†	*	50.0	40.0	26.7	*	*	16.7	*	*	*	22.7	*	*
Undergraduate Public Colleges	54.8	55.6	41.0	45.7	54.1	24.3	*	57.7	44.8	23.9	30.2	*	8.8
Undergraduate Private Colleges	83.8	76.3	68.6	73.1	68.0	68.0	66.2	61.5	43.9	59.4	47.0	*	5.0
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	42.7	58.4	66.3	51.1	55.6	37.0	41.3	38.5	37.9	37.9	34.9	*	4.8
Enlarged Public Colleges	66.7	60.0	83.3	64.1	*	38.5	*	50.0	55.3	38.2	42.6	*	20.6
Public Universities of Medium Scope	72.3	74.2	71.9	70.3	73.2	64.3	*	42.6	54.5	33.3	36.6	*	*
Private Universities of Medium Scope	84.0	92.6	76.7	69.4	62.5	68.8	*	63.0	72.5	48.0	61.0	*	*
Complex Public Universities	87.4	86.3	86.1	79.0	75.0	76.4	65.4	64.0	63.2	64.4	46.2	22.5	11.0
Complex Catholic Universities†	63.5	59.3	78.2	69.6	60.0	65.7	*	61.0	60.5	40.4	36.3	*	*
Separate Technological Institutions	*	*	82.8	*	*	57.1	*	*	*	43.2	40.0	28.8	*
Overall Percentage (Weighted Mean)	(75.5)	(75.2)	(74.8)	(71.0)	(66.9)	(65.0)	(59.0)	(56.6)	(54.2)	(50.0)	(41.7)	(23.5)	(9.0)

* Percentage not calculated.

† Does not include persons appointed on a contributed service basis.

thought to be of general interest and for which the number of teachers was large enough to justify statistical treatment. Junior colleges have been excluded from this table because so many junior college faculty members teach in more than one field and both at the high school and junior college level. This would make it difficult to interpret the figures.

In general the data speak for themselves. Perhaps the most significant fact that emerges from these figures is that the differences in levels of faculty training in particular fields among different types of institutions are great. The field of physics is a good illustration of this point, with a range of 24.3 percent for public undergraduate colleges to 76.4 percent for complex public universities.

The percentages for different fields within single types of institutions show a similar range. Consider, for example, the fact that the percentage of persons with Doctor's degrees in history in complex public universities is almost eight times as great as the percentage for teachers of music in the same institutions. This point is further elaborated in Table VIII.

Table VIII shows the percentage of faculty members with doctorates teaching in certain fields in twenty-five complex public universities. This group of institutions, composed chiefly of state universities, provides a valuable basis for generalizations about levels of training in a variety of fields because these institutions have large faculties and offer instruction in almost all the usual academic and professional fields. Over twelve thousand of the approximately thirty thousand, or 42 percent, of the faculty members included in this study hold appointments in complex public universities. As will be noted in Table VIII, the samples on which the percentages are based are substantial.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS WITH DOCTOR'S DEGREES TEACHING IN SELECTED FIELDS IN COMPLEX PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

Fields	Number	Percentage
History	277	87.4
Biology	1,000	79.0
Sociology	150	68.0
Languages and Linguistics	445	65.4
Pharmacy	131	58.0
Agriculture	547	51.7
English	759	46.2
Forestry	69	36.3
Business Administration	485	33.6
Engineering	1,309	22.5
Social Service	136	19.9
Home Economics	425	19.8
Physical Education and Athletics	488	12.5
Journalism	147	11.6
Music	389	11.0
Fine Arts (Except Music)	262	8.0
Nursing	210	1.4
Architecture	144	0

These figures, showing the comparative sizes of staffs in different fields, are in themselves of some interest. They reflect the curricular emphases in large, tax-supported universities. Several professional fields—medicine, law, dentistry, and veterinary medicine—have been omitted from Table VIII because these fields have their own professional degrees, which, in this study, have been classified separately.

Two main factors probably account for the tremendous range of percentages in this table. First, the level of faculty training in a given discipline will be influenced by the availability of doctoral programs in the field. Thus, with very few universities offering the Doctor's degree in music, the number of teachers of music holding doctorates is quite limited. The availability of doctoral programs is in turn affected

by the character of the field and the degree to which it is generally recognized as an established discipline. Music, to illustrate the first of these two factors, is a field which depends less on research than does chemistry or biology. It is understandable, therefore, that doctoral programs in music are less numerous than in other fields. On the other hand, physical education and athletics is an example of the operation of the second factor, that is, of a newer professional field in which doctoral programs are not generally available.

A second major factor affecting the level of faculty training in a field is the abundance of non-academic opportunities for persons with the doctorate in the field. For example, in agriculture and forestry, universities must compete with governmental agencies for highly trained personnel, whereas in the field of history the one important vocational outlet is college and university teaching. If the Federal Government employed thousands of historians, the percentage of persons with doctorates in history who are teaching in universities would probably be lower than it is at the present time.

The percentage figures in Table VIII suggest some limitations that must be placed on the aspirations of the individual institution. To illustrate, an engineering faculty would be quite unwise, in view of the data for engineering in this table, to set up the Doctor's degree as a necessary qualification for appointment, unless the institution were in a position financially to outbid most other institutions for highly trained personnel. Under present conditions few engineering faculties can expect to maintain a doctoral percentage of 50 percent. The figures for other fields suggest similar limitations in faculty personnel policies.

SOME COMMENTS ON FACULTY TRAINING

We have been concerned primarily with a statistical description of conditions in a large number of institutions. It has been implied at several points that the data had important implications for the administration of colleges and universities. We believe it is true that these figures are valuable in institutional planning, but we are equally convinced that they are by no means clearcut, self-interpreting guides to action. We should like, therefore, to suggest a few of the more fundamental questions which are not answered by this study.

The very kind of analysis in which we have been engaged may give rise to false assumptions. We have talked about the level of training, and it might be inferred from this that the *higher* the level of graduate training in any teaching field in any institution with any group of the students, the *better*. We are not at all certain that this is a valid inference. Or one might have concluded from the statistics that the *typical* or *average* condition was the *desirable* condition. This conclusion, too, we think is unwarranted.

The requirements of most graduate schools are based on the supposition that doctoral programs are preparation for careers of research. Can it be shown that these programs are also the best preparation for the teaching of undergraduates—the occupational outlet for most Doctors in most fields? And is there a proper distinction between the best training for teachers of specialists and the best training for teachers of general students? Is it true, as many college administrators believe, that the high degree of specialization in most doctoral programs deprives the prospective college teacher of the breadth and perspective required for really good undergraduate teaching,

especially at the lower division level? Might not a broad and rigorous Master's degree program, providing some acquaintance with research method and motivation, be not only a satisfactory but even a desirable preparation for most college teachers?

Other questions are suggested by the financial problems of higher education, as well as by purely instructional considerations. Have we placed too much emphasis on the technical competence of the college teacher, as though his competence were transmitted directly to the student? Should we require more independent study on the part of the student, expecting him to seek out and learn from authoritative writers, relying less heavily on the individual classroom teacher? If this were done, would it be educationally necessary to maintain our present student-faculty ratios and teaching loads?

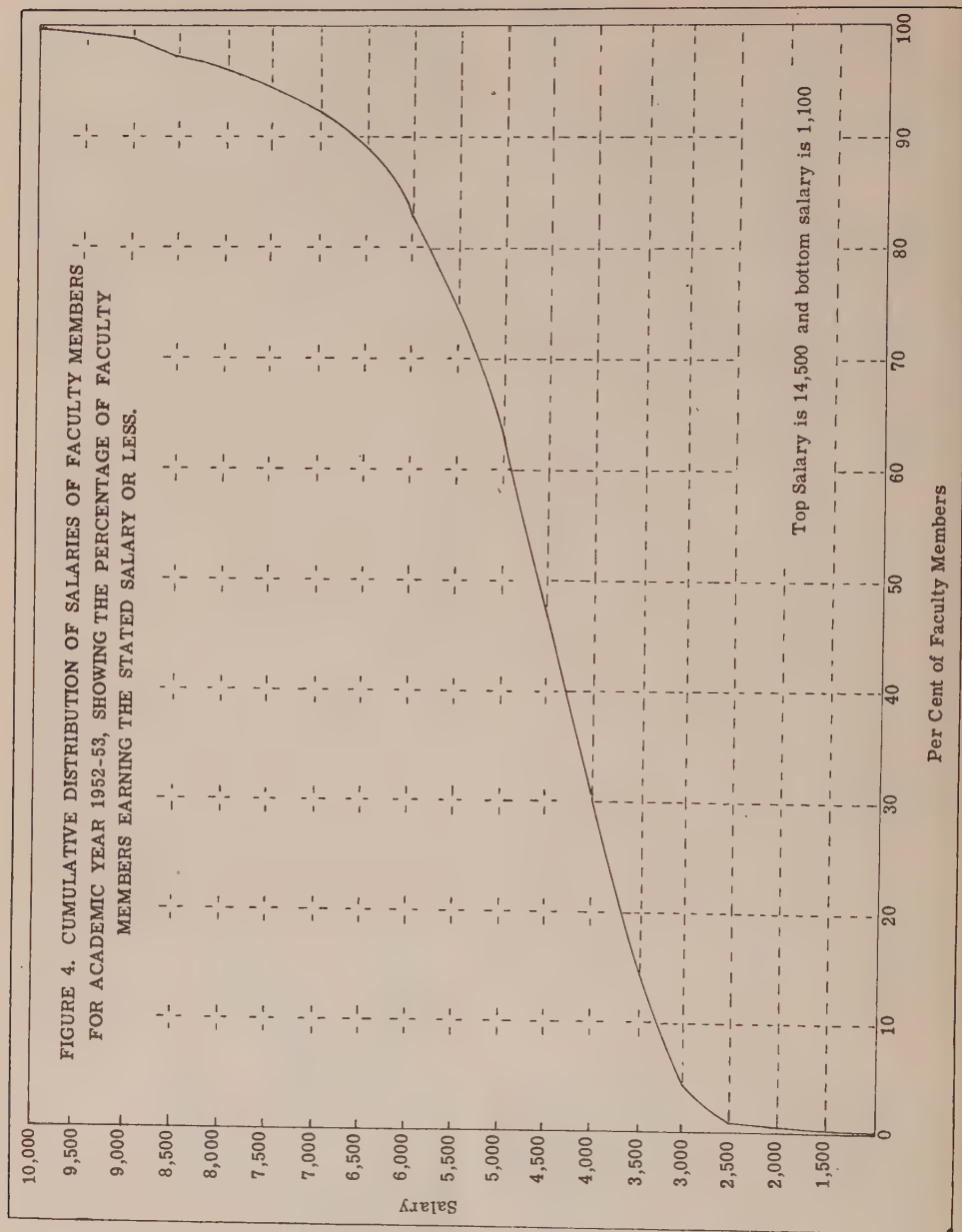
This is the time, we think, to consider such questions. The next few years will bring great stresses and strains on academic policy and practice. If the important questions can be considered thoughtfully in advance, our future can be determined in part by wisdom rather than wholly by a process of *ad hoc* decision and educational erosion.

FACULTY SALARIES

The salary data presented here are for the academic year 1952-53. An examination of the salary figures of a small group of selected institutions suggests that since 1952-53 there has been a general increase in salaries in higher institutions of about 8 percent. We believe that it is reasonable to assume, therefore, that the figures reported in this study are about 8 percent lower than salary figures for the current academic year. The authors feel, however, that while the absolute

salaries summarized in this study are of considerable interest, certain relationships, such as those between salary and degree, salary and rank, and salary and field of instruction, are of more significance. While the absolute salary figures referred to in this study have changed since 1952-53, it is reasonable to assume that such relationships as those mentioned have not changed appreciably since 1952-53 and that they will continue to be much the same.

Our salary figures are based on reports for 19,500 full-time faculty members in 282 higher institutions. These numbers may be compared with the approximately 30,000 faculty members in 330 institutions constituting the population providing data for the first section of this report. The difference in numbers is explained by the fact that some 3,000 faculty members comprising the staffs of 48 Roman Catholic institutions included in the earlier calculations are excluded here. Another 6,500 persons who are employed on a twelve-month basis in the remaining 282 institutions are also excluded. The faculty members of Roman Catholic institutions were excluded because so many of them were on a contributed service basis, and "equivalent salaries" are difficult to determine with any degree of accuracy. Since the contracts of most faculty members are for the academic year, we have decided that it would be best to discuss salaries on that basis. In some salary studies an effort has been made to reduce all salaries to their academic-year equivalent; for example, a twelve-month salary of \$12,000 would be reduced to \$9,000 in order to make it comparable with academic-year salaries. However, serious questions may be raised as to whether genuine comparability is secured through this procedure. Accordingly, persons appointed on a



twelve-month basis are excluded from this study. Therefore the figures given are based on salaries for the regular academic year, which typically is a period of nine to ten months.

Figure 4 shows the cumulative

distribution of salaries for 19,464 faculty members in 282 colleges and universities for the academic year 1952-53. This graph indicates the percentage of faculty members having a given salary at any point

TABLE IX

SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN 282 INSTITUTIONS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53,
BY HIGHEST DEGREES

Highest Degrees	Number	Highest Salary	Lowest Salary	Q ₃	Median Salary	Q ₁	Mean Salary
Doctor's	7,374	\$14,500	\$2,600	\$6,300	\$5,300	\$4,600	\$5,590
Master's	9,739	14,500	1,300	5,100	4,200	3,600	4,400
Bachelor's	1,556	10,000	1,100	4,700	3,900	3,300	4,100
Faculty as a Whole	19,464	14,500	1,100	5,600	4,600	3,900	4,900

along the distribution. For example, 90 percent of the persons received salaries of \$6,700 or less, while less than 2 percent received salaries higher than \$9,000. At the other end of the distribution, only 10 percent of the faculty received salaries of \$3,400 or less. In other words, 80 percent of the teachers earned salaries between \$3,400 and \$6,700. Very large salaries are not characteristic of college and university faculties as a whole. Moreover, Figure 4 shows that salaries tend to cluster just below the median. The 40 percent of the faculty falling immediately below the median salary are concentrated in a range of \$3,400 to \$4,600, a difference of \$1,200. The salaries of the 40 percent of the faculty members immediately above the medium range from \$4,600 to \$6,700, a difference of \$2,100.

Table IX gives the range in salaries for the entire faculty sample and for the faculty distributed according to highest degree held. It will be noted that the range is quite wide, from \$9,100 to \$14,500, a difference of \$13,400 between the highest and lowest salaries. That the salaries tend to be concentrated at the lower end of the range is shown by the fact that 75 percent of the faculty members had salaries of \$5,600 or less, the third quartile (Q₃) being at \$5,600. The middle 50 percent of the faculty members in these 282 institutions, that is, those between the first quartile (Q₁), or

25th percentile, and the third quartile (Q₃), or 75th percentile, have a salary range of \$3,900 to \$5,600.

Table IX also shows that faculty members in the North Central area who have Doctor's degrees received salaries considerably higher than those received by faculty members with less training. The median salary for persons with Doctor's degrees is \$5,300, and this is higher than the salary earned by over 75 percent of the faculty members who have only Master's degrees. The salary at the third quartile—that point below which 75 percent of the salaries fall—for persons with Master's degrees as their highest is only \$5,100. The inter-quartile range—the middle 50 percent of the salaries—for persons with Doctor's degrees is \$4,600 to \$6,300, a difference of \$1,700. On the other hand, the inter-quartile range for persons having only the Master's degrees is \$3,600 to \$5,100, which is narrower and lower than the Doctor's degree range. The median (\$4,600) is, of course, the salary of the typical or middle person in the entire faculty group.

Table X shows the salaries of faculty members by rank. While it is clear that salary and rank are closely related, it should also be noted that the salary ranges for the different ranks overlap greatly. For example, there are Instructors who are receiving salaries higher than those of half of the Professors. The highest and lowest salaries

TABLE X

SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN 282 INSTITUTIONS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53,
BY RANKS

Ranks	Number	Highest Salary	Lowest Salary	Q ₃	Median Salary	Q ₁	Mean Salary
Professor	4,762	\$14,500	\$2,000	\$7,200	\$6,000	\$5,000	\$6,160
Associate Professor	3,967	9,900	1,600	5,900	5,100	4,500	5,190
Assistant Professor	5,303	10,300	1,800	5,000	4,500	3,900	4,450
Instructor	3,750	6,900	1,100	4,100	3,700	3,300	3,700
No Rank	801	6,700	2,000	5,250	4,300	3,600	4,430

for the Assistant Professors are both higher than the corresponding figures for Associate Professors, though in general Associate Professors are better paid than Assistant Professors. In this connection it should be mentioned that the figures for Q₃ and Q₁, which are the upper and lower limits of the middle 50 percent of the salaries in each rank, are more significant than the highest and lowest salaries since the latter apply to very few persons.

It hardly need be mentioned that the range of salaries at each rank would be narrower in any given institution than for the whole group of 282 colleges

and universities. The institution that pays \$1,100 to one of its Instructors would not be the same as the institution that pays a salary of \$14,500 to one of its Professors. The reader is cautioned against assuming that the figures of Table X would be representative of any single institution.

Although our primary purpose here is to describe rather than to evaluate, we cannot refrain from commenting on the pathetic plight of some of our college teachers at all ranks. What can one say about the payment of \$2,000 to a Professor, a senior member of a staff, for nine or ten months of work on a full-

TABLE XI

SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN SELECTED TEACHING FIELDS IN 282 INSTITUTIONS
FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Fields	Number of Faculty Members	Highest Salary	Lowest Salary	Mean Salary	Mean Salary for Faculty Members with Doctorates
Chemistry	610	\$14,500	\$2,700	\$5,430	\$5,750
Physics	385	12,000	2,500	5,270	5,920
Political Science	270	10,800	2,100	5,260	5,630
Economics	379	10,700	2,600	5,250	5,910
History	523	11,100	2,400	5,230	5,530
Psychology	430	10,300	3,500	5,180	5,490
Education	1,135	10,700	2,000	5,140	5,660
Biology	1,045	14,500	1,900	5,120	5,550
Languages and Linguistics	593	10,400	1,900	4,940	5,510
Mathematics	704	12,400	2,400	4,940	5,790
English	1,455	11,400	1,900	4,610	5,410
Music	988	9,500	2,000	4,370	5,440

TABLE XII

SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS BY TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Types of Institutions	Faculty Members	Highest Salary	Lowest Salary	Median Salary	Mean Salary
Public Junior Colleges	884	\$ 6,800	\$1,900	\$5,000	\$5,050
Private Junior Colleges	321	6,000	2,000	3,400	3,490
Undergraduate Public Colleges	1,711	7,400	1,600	4,700	4,730
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	2,535	8,300	1,600	3,900	3,970
Undergraduate Private Colleges	1,173	9,100	1,300	4,200	4,450
Enlarged Public Colleges	1,077	6,900	3,000	4,900	5,000
Public Universities—Medium Scope	1,862	8,900	1,100	4,500	4,670
Private Universities—Medium Scope	715	9,400	2,200	4,300	4,390
Complex Public Universities	8,797	14,500	2,000	5,000	5,380
Separate Technological Institutions	389	10,500	3,000	4,800	5,080

time basis, or of \$1,100 to a full-time Instructor for a similar period? Under what circumstances, it may be asked, could these salaries be justified?

Table XI shows the salaries of faculty members in twelve teaching fields which are commonly found in colleges and universities of most types. The fields are listed in the order of their mean salaries, from highest to lowest. The range of these means is \$1,060, from chemistry at the top to music at the bottom. The field of physics has the second highest mean, while English ranks next to music at the lower end of the range.

Since, as we have seen, there are marked differences in the levels of training of teachers in these fields, it is difficult to ascertain to what extent the differences in mean salaries among the fields reflect differences in levels of training as against differences in the values placed upon the fields themselves by the policy-making officers of higher institutions. For example, does the field of chemistry rank high in salaries because the level of training in this field is high, or because institutions are willing to pay higher salaries to chemists than to teachers in other fields? The last column of Table XI suggests a partial answer to this question. The mean salaries for teachers

with doctorates are shown. It will be noted that the range of salaries in this column is only half as great as the range of mean salaries without regard to training, and also it will be seen that the order is not the same. When the level of training is taken into account, the fields of physics, economics, and mathematics have more favorable salaries than does the field of chemistry. English and music are still the lowest fields, however. These facts suggest that the salary differentials among teaching fields result in part from higher levels of training in some fields (more of the teachers in these fields qualifying for the salary benefits that come to possessors of doctorates) and in part from the willingness of institutions to pay higher salaries to teachers in some fields in order to meet the competition for personnel in these fields.

FACULTY SALARIES BY TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

An analysis of faculty salaries in different types of institutions is of special interest because of the widespread concern in recent years over the financial plight of certain groups of colleges and universities and because of the fact that all higher institutions compete with one another, to a

greater or less degree, for staff. Salaries reflect the financial status of institutions and affect the ability of individual institutions and groups of institutions to attract and retain competent faculty members.

In this section we shall give attention to the same kinds of relationships as we have been discussing for the faculty group as a whole: salaries in relation to highest degree held, salaries in relation to rank, and salaries in relation to field of instruction.

Table XII presents a summary of the distributions of salaries for faculty members grouped according to types of institutions. In these distributions no account is taken of degree or rank. All faculty members employed for the regular academic year in the reporting institutions within a given institutional group are included.

An examination of Table XII reveals that there is considerable variation in the median salaries among the different groups of institutions. The median salaries range from \$3,400 for private junior colleges to \$5,000 for public junior colleges and complex public universities. Considerable variation also exists with respect to highest instructional salaries, with \$6,000 for the private junior colleges being the lowest and \$14,500 for the complex public universities being the highest. Less variation is apparent in the lowest salaries, although the lowest salaries of enlarged public colleges and separate technological institutions are considerably above those of the other institutional groups. Figures for highest and lowest salaries have limited significance, however, because, as it has already been pointed out in our consideration of the faculty as a whole, salaries tend to cluster around the median, and the highest and lowest figures are for a relatively small number of persons.

It is noteworthy that the highest median salaries are to be found in two quite different types of institutions, the public junior college and the complex public university, and that the extremes in median salary are to be found in the two junior college groups—the public junior college has the highest median salary of all institutional groups and the private junior college has the lowest median salary of all institutional groups.

Table XII suggests that there is very little relationship between the general salary level in a given group of institutions and the general level of academic training required for staff members in the group. Table IV showed that the public junior college group has the lowest percentage of persons with Doctor's degrees, while the undergraduate private college group has the highest percentage of persons with doctorates, yet the median salary for persons on the staffs of public junior colleges is \$5,000 as compared with \$4,200 for persons on the staffs of undergraduate private colleges. Moreover, although there are twice as many persons with Doctor's degrees in private junior colleges as there are in public junior colleges, the median salary for public junior colleges is \$1,600 higher than the median salary for private junior colleges. Undergraduate private colleges have almost twice as many persons with doctorates on their staffs as do the undergraduate public colleges, but undergraduate public colleges have a median salary of \$500 higher than the median salary of the undergraduate private colleges. In general it may be concluded that median salaries in public institutions are higher than the median salaries for corresponding types of private institutions.

An interesting question is suggested by Table XII with respect to the

TABLE XIII

MEDIAN SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS BY HIGHEST DEGREES AND TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS
FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Types of Institutions	Doctor's Degrees	Master's Degrees	Bachelor's Degrees	All Faculty Members
Public Junior Colleges	\$3,900	\$4,900	\$4,400	\$5,000
Private Junior Colleges	4,000	3,400	3,200	3,400
Undergraduate Public Colleges	5,400	4,400	3,600	4,700
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	4,500	3,700	3,400	3,900
Undergraduate Private Colleges	4,800	3,800	3,700	4,200
Enlarged Public Colleges	5,500	4,500	4,000	4,900
Public Universities—Medium Scope	5,200	4,200	3,800	4,500
Private Universities—Medium Scope	4,600	3,900	3,950	4,300
Complex Public Universities	5,800	4,400	4,100	5,000
Separate Technological Institutions	5,500	4,650	4,400	4,800

undergraduate Protestant colleges. These institutions have the lowest median salary of the three groups of undergraduate colleges. One might ask to what extent the low median salary operates to influence the level of training of persons on the staffs of these church-related colleges. It is apparent that low salaries do not act as absolute deterrents to the securing of highly trained faculty members, since, even though the undergraduate public colleges have a median salary of \$800 above the median salary of the undergraduate Protestant colleges, the latter have a higher percentage of persons with Doctor's degrees. We are probably justified in concluding that one factor operating in favor of the church-related institution is the element of religious commitment on the part of the staff members. Well trained persons may accept positions and serve for many years in these colleges because of religious conviction, notwithstanding low salaries.

For each of the institutional groups, Table XIII gives the median salary for faculty members classified by the highest degrees held. This table further emphasizes the disparities that exist in salary levels among types of institutions. For example, the median salary

for a person with only a Bachelor's degree in public junior colleges and separate technological institutions is \$4,400. This is almost as high as the median salary for persons with Doctor's degrees in undergraduate Protestant colleges, which is \$4,500. In several types of institutions the median salary for persons with only Master's degrees is higher than the median salary for persons with Doctor's degrees in other groups of institutions. For example, the median salary for persons with Master's degrees in public junior colleges is higher than the median salary for persons with Doctor's degrees in private junior colleges, undergraduate Protestant colleges, undergraduate private colleges, and private universities of medium scope.

It may also be seen from the data summarized in Table XIII that the difference between median salaries for persons with Master's degrees and the median salaries for persons with Doctor's degrees is for all types of institutions greater than the difference between the median salaries of persons with Bachelor's degrees and the median salaries of persons with Master's degrees. From this table we can estimate the monetary value of doctoral training to staff members in

TABLE XIV
 MEDIAN SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS BY RANKS AND TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS
 FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Types of Institutions	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
Private Junior Colleges	\$3,500	\$3,400	\$3,300	\$3,000
Undergraduate Public Colleges	6,000	5,000	4,600	3,800
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	4,500	4,000	3,600	3,200
Undergraduate Private Colleges	5,000	4,500	4,000	3,400
Enlarged Public Colleges	6,000	5,300	4,650	4,100
Public Universities—Medium Scope	5,900	4,900	4,200	3,600
Private Universities—Medium Scope	5,200	4,600	3,900	3,400
Complex Public Universities	7,100	5,800	4,800	3,800
Separate Technological Institutions	7,000	5,500	4,750	4,000

different types of institutions. For example, the difference between the median salary of persons with only Master's degrees and the median salary of persons with Doctor's degrees in complex public universities is \$1,200. In private junior colleges the corresponding difference is only \$600.

These observations on salaries in different types of colleges and universities give cause for speculation. For instance, why is it that one type, the public junior colleges, with their high salary level, do not have on their staffs more persons with doctoral training? Is this related to the fact that many of these teachers are drawn directly from the faculties of local high schools? Is there a disinclination on the part of highly trained persons to accept positions in tax-supported junior colleges because they prefer to teach in degree-granting institutions in which there are more opportunities to work with advanced students? Or, perhaps do public junior college administrators place a higher premium on public school teaching experience and interests than on the Doctor's degree as desirable qualifications for teaching positions in their colleges?

Table XIV shows the median salary for faculty members classified accord-

ing to academic rank in each type of institution. Public junior colleges have been omitted because most of these institutions, as mentioned earlier, do not employ a system of faculty ranks. Perhaps the most striking observation to be made from this table is that the range between the median salary for Instructors and the median salary for Professors differs considerably among institutional types. For example, in complex public universities the median salary for persons with the rank of Professor is \$7,100, and the median salary for persons with the rank of Instructor is \$3,800, a difference of \$3,300. On the other hand, in private junior colleges the median salary for Professors is \$3,500, and the median salary for Instructors is \$3,000, a difference of only \$500. In undergraduate private colleges the difference between the median salary of Professors and the median salary of Instructors is \$1,600. These figures are significant in defining the salary expectations of younger staff members who are estimating their financial futures. It is probable that a recognition of future salary limits causes many junior staff members to move from institutions with a narrow range of salaries to institutions with a wider range of salaries and accordingly

TABLE XV
MEAN SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS WITH DOCTOR'S DEGREES IN SELECTED FIELDS BY TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Types of Institutions	History	Psychology	Chemistry	Biology	Political Science	Physics	Language, Linguistics	Economics	Education	Mathematics	English	Music
Undergraduate Public Colleges	\$5,680	\$4,060	\$5,850	\$5,300	\$5,480	*	*	\$5,860	\$5,370	\$5,950	\$5,730	\$4,580
Undergraduate Protestant Colleges	4,830	4,570	4,780	4,620	4,710	\$5,030	\$4,560	4,740	4,390	4,800	4,800	4,210
Undergraduate Private Colleges	5,100	4,820	4,950	4,990	5,000	5,640	4,850	5,060	4,460	5,020	4,630	*
Enlarged Public Colleges	*	4,930	*	5,390	*	*	*	*	5,540	5,760	5,560	5,420
Public Universities—Medium Scope	5,230	5,230	5,220	5,210	5,220	5,460	*	5,330	5,480	5,550	5,190	*
Private Universities—Medium Scope	4,510	4,540	4,830	4,780	4,650	4,770	*	4,990	4,920	4,580	4,580	*
Complex Public Universities	5,870	6,110	6,220	5,920	6,090	6,220	5,800	6,430	6,250	5,980	5,120	6,060
Separate Technological Institutions	*	*	5,230	*	*	5,690	*	*	*	6,130	*	*

* Not calculated.

with opportunities for more significant increases in earnings. Institutions with low salary ceilings are thus at a distinct disadvantage in holding energetic young teachers.

Table XIV also shows that the range between the median salaries for the various ranks in a given institutional group is generally less between the lower ranks than between the higher ranks. For example, in complex public universities the difference between the median salary of Instructors and the median salary of Assistant Professors is \$1,000 and the difference between the median for Assistant Professors and the median for Associate Professors is \$1,000, as compared with a difference of \$1,300 between the median salary for Associate Professors and the median salary for Professors. This pattern is found in several other groups of institutions, too.

Much could be said about the salaries for different ranks in different types of institutions. Compare the median salary of Assistant Professors in complex public universities—the persons having the highest median salary for Assistant Professors in any of the groups of institutions—with the median salaries of faculty members with higher ranks in other groups. The median salary of Assistant Professors in complex public universities is \$4,800. This is greater than the median salary of Professors in private junior colleges and undergraduate Protestant colleges. It is also greater than the median salary of Associate Professors in private junior colleges, undergraduate Protestant colleges, and private universities of medium scope. This condition handicaps the latter types of institutions in recruiting staff members from the large body of young teachers in the state universities.

These comments are illustrative of

TABLE XVI

SALARIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN TWENTY-SEVEN FIELDS IN COMPLEX PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES FOR ACADEMIC YEAR, 1952-53

Teaching Fields	Mean Salary	Highest Salary	Lowest Salary
Law	\$7,140	\$12,900	\$3,300
Medicine	6,760	11,500	3,000
Chemistry	5,980	13,500	2,700
Psychology	5,900	10,300	2,700
Economics	5,810	10,700	2,600
Physics	5,810	12,000	2,500
Education	5,760	10,700	2,000
History	5,740	11,100	3,500
Political Science	5,740	10,800	2,100
Biology	5,590	14,500	2,100
Social Service	5,530	9,200	2,500
Business	5,480	10,700	2,700
Engineering	5,470	11,300	2,000
Sociology	5,410	10,000	2,500
Mathematics	5,400	12,400	2,400
Pharmacy	5,380	9,300	3,300
Journalism	5,340	9,000	2,000
Architecture	5,310	10,000	2,400
Languages and Linguistics	5,280	10,400	2,500
Veterinary Medicine	5,180	9,000	2,700
Fine Arts (except Music)	5,020	10,300	2,800
Nursing	5,010	7,100	2,800
Music	4,980	9,500	2,100
Agriculture	4,820	9,600	3,000
Physical Education and Athletics	4,820	10,000	2,000
English and Literature	4,790	11,300	2,400
Home Economics	4,560	8,200	2,200

some of the inferences that can be drawn from Table XIV.

Table XV shows the mean salaries of faculty members with doctorates teaching in twelve fields commonly offered in institutions of different types. For the reasons given in the

section of faculty training the calculations have not been made for all of the listed fields in all types of institutions. Also, the data include only persons with doctorates so that the mean salaries will be for faculty members who have comparable training.

One of the conditions most clearly reflected in this table is the unfavorable salary position of the private universities of medium scope in comparison with the other types of institutions with which they compete most directly for students and staff. These urban universities, which are expanding rapidly in enrolment, program, and influence, are paying average salaries that, in some fields, are the lowest of any group of degree-granting institutions shown in the table.

Among the fields that stand out in Table XV as enjoying superior salary status are mathematics, economics, physics, and education. It should, of course, be borne in mind that all of the fields shown in this table are what might be described as liberal arts or sciences or closely related to them. For a much greater diversity of fields and salaries we look now at the complex public universities.

Table XVI shows the salaries of faculty members in twenty-seven teaching fields in complex public universities. These fields include a variety of the arts and sciences and professional areas. This fact, together with the large number of persons involved, makes possible some significant comparisons.

In general the data of this table are easily interpreted and require no special explanation. It should be mentioned, however, that in certain of the professional fields, notably medicine and agriculture, many of the faculty members hold twelve-month appointments and therefore are not included in Table XVI. An analysis of the salaries

of these faculty members indicates, however, that their exclusion does not greatly affect the mean salaries in the fields if proper account is taken of the longer period of service of the twelve-month appointees. In other words, even though the samples of faculty members in these particular fields are less nearly complete than for the other fields, the mean salaries still reflect reasonably accurately the salary levels in these fields. One additional comment should be made about medicine. It is the understanding of the authors that the formal salaries of staff members in medical schools, even of the full-time persons included in this study of salaries, do not always include all the professional income of these persons. The salaries for medicine shown in the table may, therefore, be incomplete as indices of full professional income, even though they are based on the salary figures submitted by the respective universities.

The range of mean salaries, as shown in Table XVI, is great. The position of law and medicine in comparison with the other fields is particularly striking. There is a \$780 differential between the mean salary for medicine and that for chemistry, the next best paid field.

It is surprising that some of the other professional fields which are often considered to have high salaries actually stand in the middle or lower portion of the range. We did not expect to find, for example, that salaries in public universities are, on the whole, higher in sociology than in pharmacy and agriculture, in history than in engineering, in English than in home economics.

CONCLUSION

In our treatment of salaries we have stressed salary relationships rather than absolute salary levels. The levels change from time to time—they have

risen about 8 percent since 1952-53, according to our estimate—but we believe the significant relationships change more slowly. In our commentary on the data for both faculty training and salaries we have suggested only a few of the possible inferences that might be drawn.

It seems probable that the administrative problems arising from salary differentials among different types of institutions will be more acute in the future than in the past for the reason that the anticipated shortage of staff will place institutions of all types in more direct competition with one another for available personnel. When the individual teacher is confronted with two or three offers of positions, salary is likely to have an important influence on his decision as to which appointment he will accept. In the past many well trained persons accepted positions in institutions paying relatively low salaries, because there were not enough openings in the high-salary institutions to absorb all of the able teachers. This, to some degree, mitigated the handicap of low-salary institutions in the competition for staff. Under the circumstances which will be faced in a few years it appears that much less reliance can be placed on the forces tending toward a wide distribution of talent among institutions.

APPENDIX

The data summarized in this paper were gathered in connection with the program of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In the Spring of 1952 each college and university in the Association was requested to submit a report providing the following information for each member of its teaching staff: rank; teaching field; type of appointment (full- or part-time); contract salary;

number of months of service required for this salary; highest degree held; and a statement as to whether or not the faculty member taught graduate courses. This information was codified and punched on International Business Machine Corporation tabulating cards, one card for each faculty member.

The first five columns of the card were used to record information about the institution. For the purposes of this paper the 330 colleges and universities included in the study were divided into twelve reasonably homogeneous groups. The groups and the institutions included in each group are listed below. Institutions for which the data were incomplete or which could not properly be classified in one of these groups were excluded from this report.

Public Junior Colleges (33 institutions)

Phoenix College, Arizona
 Little Rock Junior College, Arkansas
 Pueblo Junior College, Colorado
 Joliet Junior College, Illinois
 La Salle-Peru-Oglesby Junior College, Illinois
 Lyons Township Junior College, Illinois
 Moline Community College, Illinois
 Morton Junior College, Illinois
 Thornton Junior College, Illinois
 Wilson Junior College, Illinois
 Wright Junior College, Illinois
 Mason City Junior College, Iowa
 Kansas City Kansas Junior College, Kansas
 Bay City Junior College, Michigan
 Flint Junior College, Michigan
 Gogebic Junior College, Michigan
 Grand Rapids Junior College, Michigan
 Highland Park Junior College, Michigan
 Henry Ford Community College, Michigan
 Jackson Junior College, Michigan
 Muskegan Community College, Michigan
 Port Huron Junior College, Michigan
 Eveleth Junior College, Minnesota
 Hibbing Junior College, Minnesota
 Virginia Junior College, Minnesota
 Jefferson City Junior College, Missouri
 Joplin Junior College, Missouri
 Junior College of Kansas City, Missouri
 St. Joseph Junior College, Missouri
 Northeastern Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Oklahoma
 Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Oklahoma
 Oklahoma Military Academy, Oklahoma

Potomac State School of West Virginia University, West Virginia

Private and Church-Related Junior Colleges (13 institutions)

Colorado Woman's College, Colorado
 Lincoln College, Illinois
 Monticello College, Illinois
 North Park College and Theological Seminary, Illinois
 Shimer College, Illinois
 Graceland College, Iowa
 Waldorf College, Iowa
 Christian College, Missouri
 Cottey College, Missouri
 Kemper Military School, Missouri
 Stephens College, Missouri
 Wentworth Military Academy, Missouri
 William Woods College, Missouri

Undergraduate Public Colleges (54 institutions)

Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College, Arkansas
 Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Arkansas
 Arkansas Polytechnic College, Arkansas
 Arkansas State College, Arkansas
 Arkansas State Teachers College, Arkansas
 Henderson State Teachers College, Arkansas
 Adams State College of Colorado, Colorado
 Iowa State Teachers College, Iowa
 Central Michigan College of Education, Michigan
 Michigan State Normal College, Michigan
 Northern Michigan College of Education, Michigan
 Western Michigan College of Education, Michigan
 Bemidji State Teachers College, Minnesota
 Mankato State Teachers College, Minnesota
 Moorhead State Teachers College, Minnesota
 St. Cloud State Teachers College, Minnesota
 Winona State Teachers College, Minnesota
 Harris Teachers College, Missouri
 Northwest Missouri State College, Missouri
 Southeast Missouri State College, Missouri
 Southwest Missouri State College, Missouri
 Stowe Teachers College, Missouri
 Nebraska State Teachers College, Chadron, Nebraska
 Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney, Nebraska
 Nebraska State Teachers College, Peru, Nebraska
 Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska
 State Teachers College, Dickinson, North Dakota
 State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota

State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota

Central State College, Ohio

Central State College, Oklahoma

East Central State College, Oklahoma

Langston University, Oklahoma

Northeastern State College, Oklahoma

Northwestern State College, Oklahoma

Oklahoma College for Women, Oklahoma

Southeastern State College, Oklahoma

Southwestern State College, Oklahoma

Black Hills Teachers College, South Dakota

Northern State Teachers College, South Dakota

Bluefield State College, West Virginia

Concord College, West Virginia

Fairmont State College, West Virginia

Glenville State College, West Virginia

Shepherd College, West Virginia

West Liberty State College, West Virginia

West Virginia State College, West Virginia

Wisconsin State College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College, La Crosse, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College, Platteville, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State college, River Falls, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College, Whitewater, Wisconsin

Undergraduate Roman Catholic Colleges (42 institutions)

Loretto Heights College, Colorado

Regis College, Colorado

Barat College of the Sacred Heart, Illinois

College of St. Francis, Illinois

Mundelein College, Illinois

Rosary College, Illinois

St. Xavier College, Illinois

St. Joseph's College, Indiana

St. Mary-of-the-Wood College, Indiana

Briar Cliff College, Iowa

Loras College, Iowa

St. Ambrose College, Iowa

Marymount College, Kansas

Mount St. Scholastica College, Kansas

St. Benedict's College, Kansas

St. Mary College, Kansas

Aquinas College, Michigan

Marygrove College, Michigan

Mercy College, Michigan

Nazareth College, Michigan

Siena Heights College, Michigan

College of St. Scholastica, Minnesota

St. John's University, Minnesota

St. Mary's College, Minnesota

College of St. Benedict, Minnesota

College of St. Catherine, Minnesota

College of St. Teresa, Minnesota

College of St. Thomas, Minnesota

Maryville College, Missouri

Fontbonne College, Missouri

College of St. Teresa, Missouri

Rockhurst College, Missouri

Webster College, Missouri

Buchesne College, Nebraska

College of Mount St. Joseph on the Ohio, Ohio

College of St. Mary of the Springs, Ohio

Mary Manse College, Ohio

Notre Dame College, Ohio

Ursuline College for Women, Ohio

Alverno College, Wisconsin

Mount Mary College, Wisconsin

St. Norbert College, Wisconsin

Undergraduate Private Colleges (29 institutions)

Colorado College, Colorado

Illinois College, Illinois

Knox College, Illinois

MacMurray College, Illinois

Rockford College, Illinois

Wabash College, Indiana

Coe College, Iowa

Cornell College, Iowa

Grinnell College, Iowa,

Upper Iowa University, Iowa

Hillsdale College, Michigan

Carleton College, Minnesota

Culver-Stockton College, Missouri

Drury College, Missouri

Lindenwood College, Missouri

Missouri Valley College, Missouri

Park College, Missouri

Doane College, Nebraska

Antioch College, Ohio

Hiram College, Ohio

Kenyon College, Ohio

Lake Erie College, Ohio

Marietta College, Ohio

Oberlin College, Ohio

Western College for Women, Ohio

Yankton College, Ohio

Beloit College, Wisconsin

Milwaukee-Downer College, Wisconsin

Ripon College, Wisconsin

Undergraduate Protestant Colleges (80 institutions)

College of the Ozarks, Arkansas

Hendrix College, Arkansas

Philander Smith College, Arkansas

Augustana College, Illinois

Aurora College, Illinois

Blackburn College, Illinois

Carthage College, Illinois

Concordia Teachers College, Illinois

Elmhurst College, Illinois

Greenville College, Illinois

Illinois Wesleyan University, Illinois
 James Millikin University, Illinois
 Monmouth College, Illinois
 North Central College, Illinois
 Principia College, Illinois
 Anderson College and Theological Seminary,
 Indiana
 DePauw University, Indiana
 Earlham College, Indiana
 Franklin College of Indiana, Indiana
 Goshen College, Indiana
 Hanover College, Indiana
 Indiana Central College, Indiana
 Manchester College, Indiana
 Buena Vista College, Iowa
 Central College, Iowa
 Iowa Wesleyan College, Iowa
 Luther College, Iowa
 Morningside College, Iowa
 Parsons College, Iowa
 Simpson College, Iowa
 University of Dubuque, Iowa
 Wartburg College, Iowa
 Baker University, Kansas
 Bethany College, Kansas
 Bethel College, Kansas
 College of Emporia, Kansas
 Friends University, Kansas
 McPherson College, Kansas
 Ottawa University, Kansas
 Southwestern College, Kansas
 Albion College, Michigan
 Alma College, Michigan
 Calvin College, Michigan
 Emmanuel Missionary College, Michigan
 Hope College, Michigan
 Kalamazoo College, Michigan
 Concordia College, Minnesota
 Gustavus Adolphus College, Minnesota
 Hamline University, Minnesota
 Macalester College, Minnesota
 St. Olaf College, Minnesota
 Central College, Missouri
 Tarkio College, Missouri
 Westminster College, Missouri
 William Jewell College, Missouri
 Hastings College, Nebraska
 Nebraska Wesleyan University, Nebraska
 Union College, Nebraska
 Jamestown College, North Dakota
 Ashland College, Ohio
 Baldwin-Wallace College, Ohio
 Capital University, Ohio
 College of Wooster, Ohio
 Denison University, Ohio
 Heidelberg College, Ohio
 Mount Union College, Ohio
 Muskingum College, Ohio
 Ohio Wesleyan University, Ohio
 Otterbein College, Ohio

Wilmington College, Ohio
 Wittenberg College, Ohio
 Oklahoma Baptist University, Oklahoma
 Phillips University, Oklahoma
 Augustana College, South Dakota
 Dakota Wesleyan University, South Dakota
 Huron College, South Dakota
 Davis and Elkins College, West Virginia
 West Virginia Wesleyan College, West Vir-
 ginia

Enlarged Public Colleges (20 institutions)

Arizona State College, Arizona
 Colorado State College of Education, Colorado
 Western State College of Colorado, Colorado
 Chicago Teachers College, Illinois
 Eastern Illinois State College, Illinois
 Illinois State Normal University, Illinois
 Northern Illinois State Teachers College,
 Illinois
 Western Illinois State College, Illinois
 Ball State Teachers College, Indiana
 Indiana State Teachers College, Indiana
 Fort Hays Kansas State College, Kansas
 Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia,
 Kansas
 Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg,
 Kansas
 Central Missouri State College, Missouri
 Northeast Missouri State Teachers College,
 Missouri
 Eastern New Mexico University, New Mexico
 New Mexico Highlands University, New
 Mexico
 New Mexico Western College, New Mexico
 Wisconsin State College, Milwaukee, Wiscon-
 sin
 Wisconsin State College, Superior, Wisconsin

*Public Universities of Medium Scope (15 institu-
 tions)*

Arizona State College at Tempe, Arizona
 Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College,
 Colorado
 Southern Illinois University, Illinois
 University of Wichita, Kansas
 University of Omaha, Nebraska
 New Mexico College of Agriculture and Me-
 chanic Arts, New Mexico
 North Dakota Agricultural College, North
 Dakota
 Bowling Green State University, Ohio
 Kent State University, Ohio
 Miami University, Ohio
 Ohio University, Ohio
 University of Akron, Ohio
 University of Toledo, Ohio
 South Dakota State College of Agriculture
 and Mechanical Arts, South Dakota
 Marshall College, West Virginia.

Private Universities of Medium Scope (7 institutions)

University of Denver, Colorado
 Bradley University, Illinois
 Roosevelt College of Chicago, Illinois (now
 Roosevelt University)
 Butler University, Indiana
 Drake University, Iowa
 University of Kansas City, Missouri
 University of Tulsa, Oklahoma

Complex Public Universities (25 institutions)

University of Arizona, Arizona
 University of Arkansas, Arkansas
 University of Colorado, Colorado
 University of Illinois, Illinois
 Indiana University, Indiana
 Purdue University, Indiana
 Iowa State College, Iowa
 State University of Iowa, Iowa
 Kansas State College of Agriculture and Ap-
 plied Science, Kansas
 University of Kansas, Kansas
 Michigan State College, Michigan
 Wayne University, Michigan
 University of Minnesota, Minnesota
 University of Missouri, Missouri
 University of Nebraska, Nebraska
 University of New Mexico, New Mexico
 University of North Dakota, North Dakota
 Ohio State University, Ohio
 University of Cincinnati, Ohio
 Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical Col-
 lege, Oklahoma
 University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma
 University of South Dakota, South Dakota
 West Virginia University, West Virginia
 University of Wisconsin, Wisconsin
 University of Wyoming, Wyoming

Complex Catholic Universities (6 institutions)

De Paul University, Illinois
 Loyola University, Illinois
 University of Notre Dame, Indiana
 University of Detroit, Michigan
 St. Louis University, Missouri
 Marquette University, Wisconsin

Separate Technological Institutions (6 institutions)

Illinois Institute of Technology, Illinois
 Rose Polytechnic Institute, Indiana
 Michigan College of Mining and Technology,
 Michigan
 New Mexico Institute of Mining and Tech-
 nology, New Mexico
 Case Institute of Technology, Ohio
 South Dakota School of Mines and Tech-
 nology, South Dakota

The sixth column was used to record information about academic rank. Seven categories were employed: Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, Instructor, Teaching Assistant (including Teaching Fellows), Military Rank, Other (e.g. Lecturer), and No Rank (where no system of ranks was employed in the institution). With few exceptions it was found that most of the faculty could be classified in the first four categories.

The seventh and eighth columns were used to record information about the field in which the faculty member was teaching. The fields were divided into seventy-one categories according to the major divisions of knowledge and subdivisions thereunder, these categories in general following the typical departmental structure of American colleges and universities.

In the ninth column was recorded information about the conditions of service, i.e., length of contract year, full-time or part-time, contributed service, and similar items. The next three columns were used to record the faculty member's salary to the nearest hundred dollars.

The thirteenth column was used to record information about the highest degree held by the faculty member. Because of the many different kinds of degrees found in American colleges and universities, some arbitrary system of classification had to be employed. Listed below are illustrations of the degrees included in each of the categories used.

DOCTOR'S DEGREES: Ph.D., Ed.D., Sc.D.

MASTER'S DEGREES: M.A., M.S., M.B.A.,
 Mus.M., M.F.A., M.A. in Ed., M. Ed.,
 M.A.L.S., Th.M., M.S.E.E., and others

BACHELOR'S DEGREES: B.A., B.S., B.D.,
 B.B.A., B.F.A., B.M., B. Arch., S.T.B.,
 Ph.B., B.S.E.E., B.S.M.E. and others

OTHER DEGREES:

Other Doctorates: Th.D., D.Eng., D.C.S.,
 D.F.A., S.T.D., and others

Other Degrees (domestic): Ph.G., S.T.L.,
J.C.L., and others

Foreign Degrees: D.Phil., Litt.D., Ph.L.,
S.T.L., L.Sc.N., Mag.Litt., and others

Medical and Dental Degrees: M.D., D.D.S.,
D.V.M., and others

Law Degrees: LL.B., LL.M., J.D., S.J.D.,
and others

Certificates and Diplomas in Art and Music
No degree held by staff member

The data were collected, classified, and coded at a central location by two persons, each specializing in certain information. The data were then tabulated by machine. During the tabulation periodical verifications were made to estimate and control the amount of error.

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GEORGE BANTA PUBLISHING COMPANY, MENASHA, WISCONSIN, U.S.A.